

The CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Vol. 31

NOVEMBER 1956

No. 3

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The Clearing House

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NOTICE TO WRITERS

We welcome contributions from our readers. In every issue we publish teachers' and administrators' articles that report good practices, interesting experiments, fact-finding and action research, or new twists to old ideas. Many of our readers have achieved results in their classrooms and in their school systems which should be known in thousands of other high schools.

Preference is given to articles that combine factual reporting, interesting context, and incisive style.

Topics, of course, should relate to junior- or senior-high-school programs, services, or personnel.

Contributions should not exceed 2,500 words, although we invite shorter items of from 100 to 600 words. Typing should be double spaced. Keep the carbon copy and send us the original. To tailor articles to allotted space, we may have to make slight changes in the manuscript.

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THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

EDITOR'S NOTE

In a great many secondary schools, the role of the librarian and the function of the library have been getting more and more professional attention. This is as it should be.

Constant and wise use of library resources—books, magazines, audio-visual materials, picture files, research findings—can sharpen both teaching and learning. No longer can a school justifiably regard a library as a combination study hall, meeting room, parking lot, and a place to do homework. The librarian is considered a member of the teaching staff and is placed on the teachers' salary schedule. And a good high school spends a minimum of \$1.50 per pupil for the book and magazine collection alone. As Cliff Robinson points out in his editorial on page 134, the secondary school library is increasingly a source for effective education. A school cannot be a good school unless it has a good library.

The authors of the three articles which follow are all high-school librarians. Giles S. Green is associated with the Ashland (Oregon) High School. Helen Wheeler is on the staff of the Tuckahoe (New York) High School. Madge Gaylord writes from her experience in the Pueblo (Colorado) County High School.

A Workable Periodical Library

By GILES S. GREEN

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A FEW TONS of magazines and a periodical library lies in organization. Once materials are acquired, they must be organized for availability. Most of the value of magazine subscriptions is lost forever if the magazines are not made available for reference purposes.

Nowhere can a librarian get so much for so little investment as from good, usable magazines. A periodical library properly organized with the "Readers' Guide" service soon becomes the first point of attack on any problem of research by student or teacher. It can readily become the most

vital part of any reference library. Obviously there must be enough magazines to keep users from becoming discouraged; the users themselves must have some elementary skill in the use of the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature"; and most certainly the back files of the periodicals must be readily available. How can this availability be achieved?

Some of the methods now in use have obvious weaknesses. Binding in book form is excellent when funds permit, but it doubles the investment in any given magazine. Filing in closed boxes is a widespread

practice since a type of "fold-your-own" box has been put on the market; but such boxes have these drawbacks: the magazines are not visible; one cannot tell by looking whether the box is full or empty; within the box itself the individual issues become mixed; removing and replacing one required magazine are too difficult. Laying magazines in stacks flat on the shelves is still worse from every angle. The inconvenience (understatement) of removing a desired number from near the bottom of a pile and the futility of trying to replace it or keep the stacks in order need little further comment. This is the most unattractive, inefficient, space-consuming practice of all, yet it is in common use in libraries where some attempt is made to keep back numbers of magazines without binding.

After some twenty-five years of experimenting with this problem, the author has developed a method of filing unbound periodicals which is inexpensive, keeps every copy of every magazine in plain sight, lends itself to orderly arrangement, makes each copy instantly available without disturbing any other, and does not waste space. Here is the method.

Magazine shelving made of wood is spaced to accommodate three sizes of magazines: *Reader's Digest* size, *Time* and *Newsweek* size, and *Post* and *Life* size. For the first, the shelves are spaced 9 inches apart in the clear; for the second, 12 inches apart; and for the largest magazines, 15 inches apart. The shelves should be 9 inches wide. On these shelves the magazines stand vertically, like books. They are held in this position by vertical quarter-inch plywood partitions 6 inches apart. These are slipped into quarter-inch grooves, which are cut crosswise of the shelves both above and below. These grooves may be cut on any power saw with dado cutters, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch wide and $\frac{1}{4}$ inch deep, and cut from the back edge of the shelf toward the front edge but stopping 1 inch from the front edge. This prevents the front edge from

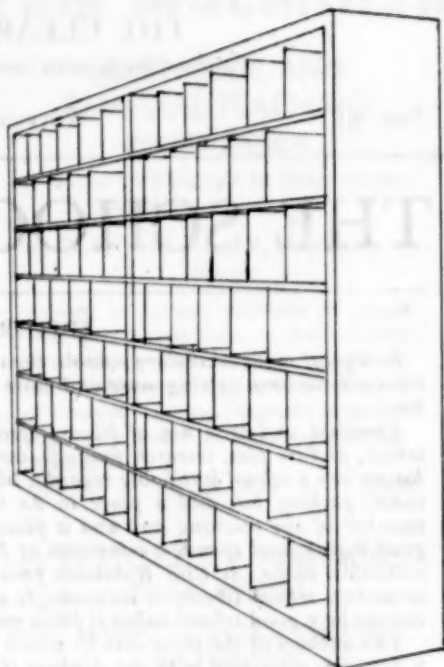


Fig. 1. One side of an 8-foot by 8-foot magazine case built for magazines of the *Time* and *Newsweek* size. Shelves are 12 inches apart in the clear. Both sides of this case may be built alike, or one side may be constructed for magazines of a larger or smaller size. There must be a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch plywood back through the center of the entire case. This is indicated in Fig. 2.

being disfigured by the raw end of each groove. The plywood boards are cut just 8 inches wide, 1 inch less than the width of the shelf, and when assembled there is no possibility of their being removed. Since these grooves cut through one-third of the thickness of the shelf, it is important that they be staggered so that they are not opposite one another, as this would greatly weaken the board. Consequently, as Figure 2 indicates, there will be some shelves with 9-inch spaces at each end. Adjustable steel shelf brackets should be used so that each shelf shall bear its own weight; otherwise the weight will cause the lower plywood

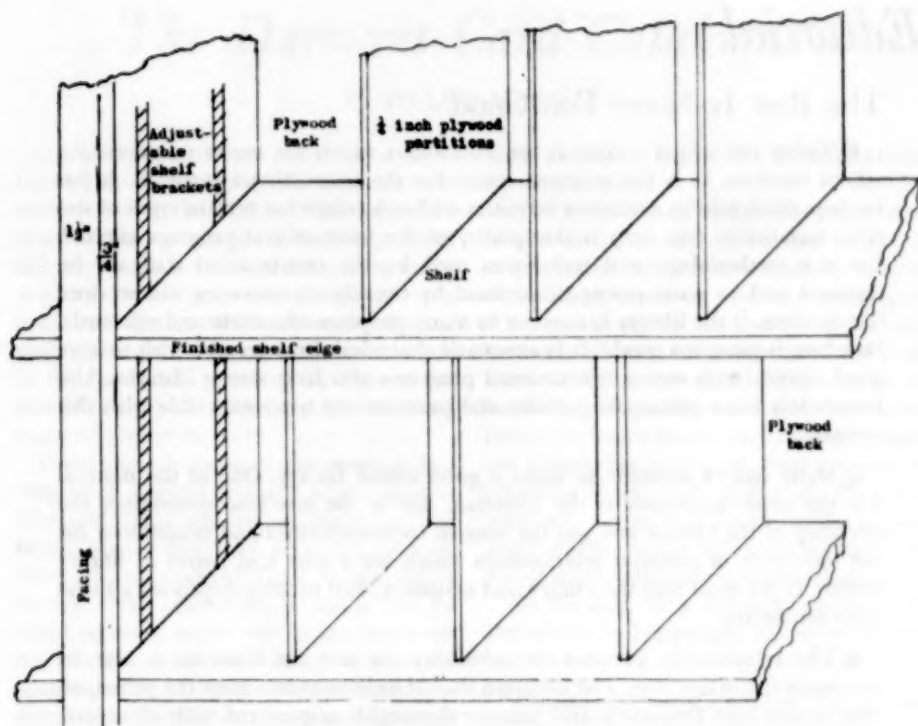


Fig. 2. The magazine stall at upper left is 9 inches wide due to the staggering of the partitions. Partitions are 8 inches wide, set into a 9-inch shelf, leaving 1 inch in front.

partitions to warp. It must be remembered that these plywood partitions are cut $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch longer than the space in the clear between the shelves.

These magazine filing shelves may be built as cases against the wall or as regular library stacks which stand out into the room. In the latter case there must be a solid backing behind the magazines, a sheet of plywood running through the stack its full height and width. Stacks 8 feet high, 8 feet wide, and $18\frac{1}{4}$ inches thick have proved satisfactory. Such a stack seven shelves high contains 184 stalls 12 inches high, enough space for ten years of ten or eleven different magazines.

If the cases are built to accommodate magazines of the three different sizes, the magazines obviously cannot be arranged in

any order other than height. They are arranged in chronological order from left to right, the latest copy being the one at the extreme right end. When one is withdrawn, its place is easily marked by the withdrawal of the one to its left about an inch. A small block of wood 2 inches by $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches, placed in the back of each stall containing copies of the *Reader's Digest* or others of that size, will hold them out near the edge of the shelf. Forty years of the *National Geographic* require only six shelves 3 feet long.

If you are crowded for space, this system is what you need. If you like to retain the attractiveness of the color in magazines, this does it. If you want every copy of every title in your periodical file instantly available, this is the answer.

Editorial

The Best Is None Too Good

¶ Today the school library is the hub about which the entire program of a school revolves. It is the resource center for the instructional program. It has an important role in extraclass activities and as a center for certain types of student socializing. Not only is the quality of the instructional program affected, but the methodology and techniques used by the instructional staff are influenced and to some extent determined by the library resources and services. Truly, then, if the library is to serve its many purposes effectively and efficiently, "the best is none too good." It is axiomatic that administrators who wish to have good schools with strong instructional programs also have strong libraries. Unfortunately some principals' policies and practices are not compatible with this position.

¶ Many factors combine to make a good school library. One of the most—if not the most—important is the librarian. She is the one who determines the efficiency of the library and sets the tone of co-operativeness and friendliness for the multitude of personal relationships which are a part and parcel of library service. It is a *must* that the library staff maintain ideal relationships with all who come for service.

¶ The relationship between the administrator and the librarian is also an extremely important one. The librarian should welcome visits from the principal, who should visit frequently and become thoroughly acquainted with all aspects of the library situation. Administrative decisions affecting the library should be made only after long and careful consideration of circumstances and consequences. The administrator and librarian should jointly prepare that part of the district budget which provides funds for capital outlay and expendable materials for the library. This co-operative effort should be in keeping with good administrative practices, realistic as to the district's financing of its educational program, and with due recognition of the dignity and responsibilities of each participant. No one knows the needs of a library better than the librarian. It is not pleasant to be cast annually in the role of an "alms woman" for operating funds. Communication between the librarian and the administrator becomes an essential ingredient if the peak of resourcefulness and efficiency of performance demanded of modern libraries is to be reached and maintained through the years.

¶ The alert administrator is constantly working to improve his school. Probably no part of the program will show greater returns more quickly and with less financial expenditure than the library. Develop an outstanding school library, if the goal is an outstanding instructional program! No two factors in good education are more complementary and compatible. When it comes to providing libraries, "the best is none too good."

—CLIFF ROBINSON

Director of Secondary Education, Oregon

The Dormant Card Catalogue

By HELEN WHEELER

THE VILLAIN IN THIS STORY is a Card Catalogue, found lying dormant in the main room of the Waller High School library in Chicago—its thirty drawers jammed full of old, neglected, and inaccurate cards. A glance into it gave the wrong steer to a book no longer in the library's collection, or neglected to point up the very one needed, or was just plain shocking by dint of the obscenities which had been penciled on many of the cards.

Unfortunately, most of the students had long since stopped giving it even a glance. The purpose of the card catalogue—service to the library user—had been lost sight of. Since the catalogue did not reflect the library's book collection, it could not be relied upon to guide one to the books on the shelves; and the vicious circle continued as the librarian tried to train students in use of the catalogue or encourage them to go to it.

Something needed to be done, but, as is often true in librarianship, no time was available to devote to this essential work. It was not something which "showed." A twofold general plan was set up of *immediate* and *gradual* steps to be taken to correct the situation.

The *immediate* steps were these:

(1) To insert as many subject guide cards as possible throughout the catalogue—at a cost of about \$25.00. Most school libraries do not have funds for such things; we took the money from fines.

(2) To insert additional instructional and directional cards.

(3) To make a start at complete re-alphabetizing.

(4) To train thoroughly an intelligent, enthusiastic student in library filing; thereafter he has been the only one who has

filed, and all of his work has been revised by the librarian.

(5) To set up a "Suggestion Box" into which students were encouraged to place, among other things, notations of inaccuracies they found in the card catalogue. This turned out to have an additional advantage—that of softening the wrath of those students who would diligently try to locate a book in the catalogue, but never be able to find it on the shelf. Young people are wonderful at taking hold in such a situation—when told about it, they cooperated by noting these incidents and putting them in the box, even listing books found on the shelves but not catalogued.

(6) To acquire a filmstrip on the subject of the card catalogue, for use in library orientation.

The most important *gradual* step in this project, of course, has been the constant, personal, individual guidance on the part of the librarian with the students. Continued referral to the card catalogue and encouragement in its use are necessary in any school library situation, good or bad. The re-alphabetizing must of necessity be gradual because of the lack of time; what is accomplished usually gets done by taking a drawer home. Gradually, other library materials have also been catalogued and cards inserted; for instance, pamphlets are listed on pink cards. What is acutely needed is a grand inventory of the collection itself, to be reflected as soon thereafter as possible in the contents of the card catalogue.

An interesting outgrowth of this situation has been the use of the filmstrip mentioned above: *The Card Catalogue*, Library Series No. 6 of Young America Films. The librarian prepared a completion-type quiz which was based upon it and mimeographed

with spaces for answers to ten questions. At one of its monthly meetings, the Library Club, which is made up of the thirty-five student assistants, had the filmstrip and quiz sprung upon them. After having it made clear to them that this was in no way a testing situation but strictly a guinea-pig one, they were given a pretest, which was followed by the filmstrip with accompanying lecture and then a retesting. An interesting result was that the old-timers in the group—i.e., the sophisticated students who had been working in the library for more than a year—did quite well on the pretest, as was expected, but improved only somewhat in the second testing; whereas the freshmen and others who had started working in the library only about five months before did not do so well as the old-timers on the pretest but shot way up on the second test. They apparently profited more from the experience.

The quiz follows. It can be adapted freely for any card catalogue or library situation:

1. What two important kinds of information can the card catalogue give you?

- (a) *What books the library has*
- (b) *Where they are (or how to find them)*

2. How are the cards in the card catalogue arranged?

Alphabetically

3. Each book is usually catalogued three ways: by *author*, by *title*, and by *subject*.

4. Name three other kinds of information which can usually be found on the catalogue card.

(a) *Publisher*

(b) *Date of publication (or copyright)*

(c) *Number of pages (or illustrator, or call number, or joint author)*

5. In addition to cards for books, other kinds of cards are placed in the catalogue to help you find your way about. Name three.

(a) *"See" cards*

(b) *"See also" cards*

(c) *Guide cards (or instruction cards)*

6. Under what word would you look if you were looking up the following titles and didn't know their authors?

The American Book of Days	<i>American</i>
An American Tragedy	<i>American</i>
From Jungle to Zoo	<i>From</i>
A Christmas Carol	<i>Christmas</i>
Pageant of America	<i>Pageant</i>

7. Explain the difference between a "See" card and a "See also" card.

"See" cards tell you where to look instead

"See also" cards tell you where to look in addition

8. On what part of the catalogue card does the call number appear?

Upper left corner

9. The call number of a fiction book consists of *author's initial* and of a nonfiction book it consists of *Dewey decimal number plus author's initial*.

10. What difference would there be between a famous man's name printed in black or in red type?

In black—he is the author of the book

In red—he is the subject of the book

USE Your Tape Recorder

By MADGE GAYLORD

TAPE RECORDERS are our busiest faculty assistants every day of the year. Originally purchased for the language department to use in speechwork, these mechanical help-

ers have been performing highly varied tasks in the lecture classroom, in the library, and even in the shop, and they have proved remarkably efficient. Long recog-

nized and appreciated as an audition device, used so students can hear themselves and make constructive criticism of their own work in speech classes and in vocal or instrumental classes, recorders in our school are now used also as a production device.

For example, our government teacher is the type who prefers to lecture to his classes when he begins a new area for class consideration. His lectures may run a full forty minutes. Because he has several classes a day, repeating such a lecture can take a lot out of him, and the classes at the end of the day are shortchanged because they suffer from a natural and highly understandable fatigue on his part. Lectures at the end of the day no longer have the enthusiasm, the originality, or warmth of personality that was there at the beginning of the day, and there is the serious danger of omission of many of the details. To avoid this decline in the value of his work, he tapes his lecture during the first hour. Throughout the rest of the day he remains with his students and runs the tape. The classes at the end of the day benefit from the same vim and vigor he exercised when he was fresh during the first hour. The students have their teacher with them for any questions which come to mind when the lecture is finished. The teacher is not exhausted. He has presented the topic with consistency to all students, and the tape recorder has stretched its usefulness to the school.

Another member of our faculty is active professionally. She teaches social living to our freshmen, and quite often she'll be away from school all day, attending regional committee meetings of teacher organizations. We are glad to see her go to these meetings, and her reports never fail to bring us interesting news of plans, events, and the thinking of other people important to us in our daily work. When she is to be absent, we call in a substitute, of course, but no one would suggest that substitute teachers are as good as the real thing. While they do their best to follow lesson plans

and keep the classes going, they can't be expected to achieve as much as the regular teacher would. Our social living teacher recognizes the limitations of a day spent with a substitute, so rather than lose an effective day for her students by having them fill in with busywork while she is away on professional assignments, she uses the reliable convenience of the tape recorder.

Before the date of her absence, she will carefully think through a discussion of some current social problem. She will tape her views as well as a digest of views of others who are big-name news commentators. By the simple method of directing questions to one or two members in her classes, she holds a personal bond between her students and herself even though she is not present at the moment. She will include references to such library tools as recent periodicals and the local newspaper, and will specify precise pages which deal with the point under discussion. This absentee teaching is pleasant for the teacher because she can work at her own pace, in the quiet of a preparation period, without threat of interruption, and it is stimulating for the students. This is no "make-do" arrangement. No one has lost time; everyone has gained. And I imagine (though I've never asked) that the substitute is eager to be called again for such a day's work.

We frequently use the tape recorder in the library. The traditional QUIET in a library is not indisputably the ideal atmosphere. For a paper in a graduate class in audio-visual techniques, I used a detailed study of the effect of recorded classical music on student behavior in the library. That study, made over a period of twelve weeks, showed that continuous classical music increases the active reading of our students. Since that test study was made, we have taped several masterworks for use in the library, all selected because they meet standards established as suitable for our needs.

All selections are calm.

All selections are melodious.

All selections are instrumentally intricate. Or, to put it negatively, the melodies may not be easily followed and hummed by the students. Timpany may not be dominant. The familiar must not be used. Eric Coates's type of composition is not suitable, neither is Bach. Strauss is satisfactory. Some Mozart, Tchaikovsky, Brahms are good.

We place the recorder in my office, out of sight of the students in order to avoid the visual distraction of the machine in operation. The amplifier is placed atop the book shelves, tight against the wall. In this way we direct the sound waves above the heads of the students, and the wall acts as a sounding board to improve the tonal quality. We maintain a volume just adequate for easy *hearing*. We do not strive for easy *listening*. Easy hearing will create a receptive attitude, conducive to orderly thinking in study. *Listening*, either comfortably or strained, is not desirable. If the listening is comfortable, it will dominate the thinking of the student, and he will concentrate on the music. We have found that with the injection of music into the room, reading replaces aimless flipping of pages. Further, more books are picked up and checked out on music days than on days when the library is quiet.

Of further interest is the effect of music during examinations. In our school (as in all schools), a few students are certain to be absent the day of a scheduled examination. This means that make-up tests must be taken in another room to avoid complicating the normal class schedule. We use the library for make-up testing. Students who took tests during hours when the tape recorder was in use seem to score higher than they normally do. This was true of all students involved, regardless of the area of study, regardless of the caliber of the student. There were no exceptions, and the increase over the same students' typical scores ranged from 3 to 12 per cent.

In our shops we use the tape recorder. For shop use, music is selected which will stimulate manual speed, make the students move a little faster. Ours is a new building, so that our shops are uncrowded and well lighted. All the equipment is recent, and each piece is designed with many safety features not found in old shop equipment. We want the student to feel peppy and light hearted. Hence we select music toward that end. We use only instrumental arrangements, avoiding vocal arrangements because of the students' tendency to concentrate on the lyrics rather than on their projects at hand. Popular selections are the most satisfactory, and the melody should be clearly defined. Band numbers with sprightly marching cadences are particularly successful. Polkas, rock and roll, mambos are rhythm types which are not effective. Taped music in the shops has definitely canceled the relaxed, conversational attitude so frequently found there. Taped music has lessened the dilatory movements often noticed in youngsters who would rather prolong one project than finish it and start the next one.

Professional use of the tape recorder has been helpful to us as a faculty. Recently I took a course which had as its major assignment a paper on intergroup relations as the problem existed in the schools where each of us worked. The paper was to be presented to the class and evaluated by the professor. Each of us selected a date most convenient for our reports and the class moved forward. I worked away on my report just like everyone else, but three days before my turn was scheduled, I fell victim of a flu bug and was summarily put to bed by our family physician. All the information for the report was in my head; the question was how to make the report for the class on time so the schedule of work would not be interrupted. It was simple; I sent word to the school that I would need the tape recorder. I taped the report, another teacher took it to class and ran it

through. My project was completed on time, and by the next class session, I was able to attend. It was as though there had been nothing unusual at all.

We have made extensive professional use of the recorder. Several of us attended a series of lectures sponsored by a near-by institute of higher learning. There were to be ten lectures in all, each given by a different person, each in a different field, but all related to education. Those of us who attended the first lecture found it entertaining and exceedingly interesting. In the hope that the balance of the series would measure up to the first, we went early to the second lecture and plugged in the recorder. The professor that night was most co-operative, and agreed to work through the mike. He alerted his cohorts and each arrived in turn, wearing his most friendly smile and offering his most engag-

ing voice. And the first man sent us a synopsis of his talk so we would have a complete set. As a faculty we included parts of these talks at our staff meetings, and while we never did use all of them, most of our faculty heard several lectures they would have missed entirely had it not been for the use of our faithful tape recorder.

Of course we use the recorder in instrumental and vocal music classes, in our language studies, for Pep Club practices, to bring to a class a major public address adapted from a radio or television presentation, but these applications are traditional. If the tape recorders in all schools are thought of as untiring, adaptable, wholly reliable teachers' aids, better teaching and better learning will result. The tape recorder is one of the best helps to the teacher who wants to get more done with (for a change) less effort.



The Administrator's Role in the Student Teaching Program

While there is no panacea for solving the problems which sometimes arise, many difficulties can be prevented through a student teaching program that is co-operatively planned and systematically put into action by the secondary school administrator, the high school resident teacher, and the college coordinator of student teaching.

In addition to its value in the student teaching activity, this synthesis of thought and effort is conducive to the establishment and maintenance of desirable working relationships, which affect all combined secondary school and college teacher education endeavors.

The administrator in the high school training center has a key role in the student teaching program. He can build interest and desirable attitudes toward student teaching on the part of the faculty, pupils and community. He can assist in integrating student teaching with the whole school program so that the student teacher may gain classroom teaching experience in a real school situation. This includes providing the opportunity for the student

teacher to work with the entire school staff as well as in school-community activities.

Such assistance does not mean that the administrator should be involved in the varied and time consuming details of operation. Rather, he should actively share in the planning and then keep in touch with progress, problems, and later evaluation of the program through periodic discussions and conferences with the resident teacher, college coordinator and the student teacher. This concept of the administrator's role in the student teaching program implies that the administrator does more than merely provide facilities, pupils and teachers. He does more than stand by as a friendly but relatively inattentive observer who is resigned to the inconveniences of the program and who, with some apprehension, later accepts first year teachers as members of his faculty. There can be little doubt but that the administrator has an active rather than passive role in the student teaching program.—DANIEL C. CHASE in the *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

ECCENTRIC ELECTRONS

By TOM ERHARD

CLOUDS OF PURPLE SMOKE, volcanoes, fried eggs, liquid air, and light waves are highlighting a semipermanent high-school science renaissance in Albuquerque, New Mexico. "Give our children more science training!" is the hue and cry throughout the nation. But students at Albuquerque High School, while not smug, do raise their eyebrows at the alarmists. After all, they've been stressing science for more than twenty years.

The outstanding example of their scientific interest is the Eccentric Electrons Club, which is anything but eccentric in its ambitions. Composed of juniors and seniors, the club is sponsored by Joseph Burger, chemistry teacher, and W. B. Maxson, physics and radio instructor. Members work on their own time, preparing experiments and demonstrations with accompanying explanatory lectures. The club then sends a team of members to near-by elementary schools, where they stage science shows to children in the upper grades.

The accent, of course, is on colorful experiments, such as showing volcanic action with rich purple smoke, or frying eggs in liquid air, or sending sound through light waves. Despite the stress on showmanship,

the demonstrations have a far more important underlying purpose. The Eccentric Electrons are conducting a voluntary "farm system" that stimulates scientific interest at the elementary-school level.

Faith in the nation's educational program provided the initial stimulus way back in 1935. Although immersed in the depression and aware of legislators' comments to tone down technical training because of job scarcity, Albuquerque's school officials decided to swim upstream. Under the guidance of Eldred R. Harrington, then a chemistry teacher at Albuquerque High, more science was offered and enrollments increased 300 per cent. Only a few years later the board of education received commendation from the United States Navy for the farsighted program.

Among other innovations, the Dawn Patrol helped stimulate interest in science. Organized by Dr. Harrington, the patrol was a voluntary noncredit class which met at 4:00 A.M. in order to have time for highly technical extra experiments. Dozens of topflight engineers, physicists, and professional men are among the "graduates" of this class, which concluded reluctantly when Dr. Harrington received a recent promotion to director of secondary education for the booming sixty-seven-school system.

The science tours were also organized in 1935. "We saw the success that Big League baseball teams had with farm systems," Dr. Harrington said, "and we decided to try the same idea in science. We contacted the youngsters at about fifth-grade level with our shows and tried to sell an interest in science to them."

Statistics have borne out Dr. Harrington's original conviction. Science in the three Albuquerque public high schools is on a

EDITOR'S NOTE

There is great pressure on secondary schools to encourage more boys and girls to study science and mathematics. The plea to give children more science training is "old hat" to the students at Albuquerque (New Mexico) High School, where science teaching has been stressed for twenty years and enrollment in science subjects has been extraordinarily high. The author is director of public relations for the Albuquerque public schools.

voluntary basis to this day, yet more than 60 per cent of the students enroll for the full sequence of science work. According to recent figures, high-school physics enrollment in Albuquerque is more than twice the national average. Enrollments in math, biology, chemistry, and other specialized courses are also above average. Much of this interest has been generated by the farm system, which is now being carried on enthusiastically by the Eccentric Electrons.

Club members separate into smaller teams for greater efficiency. Portability is a prime factor in the selection of equipment to be used. And of course safety first always applies. No dangerous experiments are performed. "It's easy to set off an explosion," Dr. Harrington pointed out. "Any fool can blow his fingers off; it takes more knowledge and training to perform experiments that are both educational and intriguing to the audiences."

Television is a recent offshoot of the tours of the science team. With more than fifty elementary schools in Albuquerque,

visits are impossible to each every year. Children and their parents saw many scientific experiments in action this year on a series of educational TV shows over several local channels.

Not only are the shows of our science team in constant demand locally, but the system has received urgent requests from other schools from coast to coast, inviting the Eccentric Electrons to visit their schools. Because of the national recognition, club members began an additional voluntary project last year. "We just can't pack up and drive 2,500 miles to New York to put on a show," one student lamented, "so we're doing the next best thing. We're writing a booklet explaining our ideas, which we can mail to other schools. We hope other schools will begin projects that will help interest their grade-school kids in science."

In the meantime, incoming high-school students, their interests aroused, continue to enroll eagerly for science training in Albuquerque. The farm system is at work—and they love it.



Making the Most of the Chalkboard

One of the prime rules for use of this prominent and conspicuous classroom fixture is to observe practices to assure neatness. When empty, the board should be clean. This applies also to erasers and chalk trays. Work no longer needed should be removed from the board promptly. Chalkboards should not be filled with crowded work. Such crowding, resulting from an attempt to use every bit of available space, leads to a cluttered untidy look. It is surprising often to observe careless use of the board, in respects similar to those just mentioned, in classrooms which are otherwise impeccably neat and tidy. Needless to say, the one unattractive feature in the room becomes the most conspicuous.

Be versatile in the use of the board. One way to avoid getting into a rut in using this device is to take advantage of mechanical aids. A pantograph is useful in placing maps or diagrams on the board;

templates, kept from year to year, used with a dusty eraser are aids to quickly putting graphic material on the board; colored chalk attracts attention and lends emphasis to important points; a chalk compass is invaluable in drawing circles or arcs; and an opaque projector will throw the outline of a map or other figure on the board where it can speedily be traced.

The skillful teacher does not monopolize the use of the board. Pupils take an interest and feel pride in the appearance of the chalkboard and its contents when they have a part to play. Like the teacher, pupils need to develop ease and confidence in the use of the board. Practice helps in this respect, of course, but instruction in proper posture and ways of using chalk will be of even greater assistance. Praising good or improved work is a good confidence builder also.—SAM DUKER in *Social Education*.

Keys to Understanding Our Economy

By BALDWIN LEE and GALEN JONES

"WHAT YOU DON'T KNOW WON'T HURT YOU" is certainly not true in the economic maze we face today. To function intelligently, responsibly, and advantageously to himself and others, the individual requires a wide background in economic knowledge. As consumer he must make decisions with regard to matters like budgeting, housing, insurance, saving, and investing, and must learn the intricacies of wise buying, of the various kinds of contracts, and of filling out tax forms and the use of banking facilities and credit. As citizen he needs a general understanding of current public issues—for example, the price-support program, tariffs, foreign aid, and taxes—and he should be informed concerning pending economic legislation and the positions thereon of candidates for public office that he may use his ballot to good purpose. Truly, our increasingly complex economy makes exacting demands in information and understandings on the individual. That education is not adequately meeting the challenge is picturesquely put by an educator who deplores the fact that "we are

turning out every year thousands of graduates who are babes in the economic woods."

Requisites for economic literacy. What economic equipment should everyone in our society possess? Stated in broad terms, the following qualifications seem indispensable: (a) a practical understanding of certain basic economic principles and topics; (b) a familiarity with the economic terms commonly used in the press adequate for intelligent newspaper and magazine reading; and (c) possession of information and skill sufficient to perform efficiently and wisely the usual citizen and consumer functions. These understandings taken together constitute what we have chosen to call the requisites for economic literacy; detailed and identified, they become the keys to understanding our economy.

The problems stated. As part of its Study on Economic Education, the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education projected two investigations to determine objectively the specifics in the requisites for economic literacy. We undertook to find out by basic research (a) which economic principles and topics are fundamental and therefore indispensable in the understanding of anyone who would be economically literate; and (b) which economic terms are commonly met with in the press and consequently essential in the vocabulary of the intelligent newspaper and magazine reader. Both of these investigations have now been completed and their results have been published.*

* *Key Understandings in Economics; Derivation, Validation, and Evaluation of a Composite List of Basic Economic Topics.* Washington, D.C.: Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, 1956.

Economics in the Press: A Survey of Magazines and Newspapers for Economic Terms. Washington, D.C.: Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, 1956.

EDITOR'S NOTE

A first major project of the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education (CASE) concerns ways to achieve greater economic literacy on the part of high-school students. Many experts believe that we benefit by the blessings of a remarkable economy but fail to understand its purposes and how it works. This project of CASE is intended to correct at least some of the deficiencies in economic understanding. Baldwin Lee is editor and Galen Jones is director of the council, which is located at 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

KEY UNDERSTANDINGS IN ECONOMICS

Having outgrown its narrow "production, exchange, distribution, and consumption" mold of a generation ago, economics is now a sprawling science with numerous ramifications. Selection of subject matter in so diffuse a field is frustrating, and in view of the profusion of available material economists themselves fail to agree on what the most essential and significant topics are. We were interested in ascertaining the practical educational demands of the economy on the citizen consumer, however, more than in deriving academic subject matter. Specifically, we wished to determine what understandings the individual needs in order to cope effectively with the economic problems and situations that he encounters each day.

Derivation and evaluation of the composite list. To that end, we sought the cooperation of leaders of the several groups in our economy most likely to be aware of its educational demands on the individual. These representatives of agriculture, business, and labor, economists, educators, and high-school teachers of economics were each invited to suggest at least ten basic economic topics they thought everybody should understand. Many of their replies conveyed not one person's opinion but that of a group who, after deliberation, had made a collective response. Thus the 800-odd replies carried the views of more than 2,000 competent representatives of the major groups in the economy.

A special staff of six—three able economists and three experienced educators—interpreted and coded the approximately 10,000 economic topics proffered by the respondents and compiled them into a composite list. This painstaking task demanded superior economic understanding and insight as well as a conscientious objectivity. The outcome was a collection of eighty-eight economic topics grouped under fourteen main categories. These were then submitted for evaluation to a large number of competent judges selected from the same major

economic groups. A total of 1,045 people rated the topics, on the basis of how important for economic literacy an understanding of each topic is, on a five-point scale ranging from "0" (unimportant), "1" (somewhat important), "2" (important), "3" (very important), to "4" (essential and indispensable).

The composite list and its uses. To illustrate the character of the "Composite Evaluated List of Basic Economic Topics," its five top-ranking items are enumerated:

1. Foundations of capitalism: private property, freedom of choice, profit motive, competition, and so on.
2. Capitalism—and socialism, fascism, communism, others; comparison of the American standard of living with those of other countries.
3. Mixed nature of our economy: competition and monopoly; private enterprise and governmental activities—freedom v. control.
4. The nature and role of the factors of production: natural resources, labor, capital, management.
5. How commodity prices are determined in a free economy: law of supply and demand.

The composite list is a unique compilation put together on the basis of an extensive canvass of competent opinion. Comprehensive in scope and carefully evaluated, it constitutes an ample compendium from which to draw suggestions of basic economic material for various purposes and uses. (1) Presenting as it does most of the key understandings in economics, it aids those concerned with economic education in answering the vital question of what to teach to qualify the individual for intelligent and responsible citizenship in a modern economic society. (2) It should be found to be an invaluable guide to carefully selected subject matter for economics courses in school or college. (3) It suggests evaluated topics on which teaching-learning units in economics may be developed. (4) It may be consulted for guidance in building a thorough-

going teacher education program or a serviceable economics course for an adult group. (5) It may be used as a criterion in checking the content, emphases, and quality of presentation of textbooks in economics.

ECONOMICS IN THE PRESS

In this printing-press age, literacy is generally recognized as prerequisite to effective living. From the standpoint of their usefulness to themselves and to society, few can be more futile than the illiterate. But the economy imposes its own additional demands in linguistic understandings. In consequence of the pervasiveness of the economic in our society, the public press is replete with content couched in economic terminology. The reader unable to grasp the salient portions of this ubiquitous material is necessarily blind to a vital aspect of his environment. Our undertaking to tabulate the economic terms used in the press, therefore, rests on a firm basis. For it is only through familiarity with the economic terms commonly encountered therein that the individual can make his way toward economic literacy.

The material and procedure of analysis. In order that a comprehensive survey might be made of the general reading material (excluding books) in the American home, the study was divided into five units to comprehend five types of publications: general magazines, general newspapers, farm journals, union journals, and company publications. Of the magazines, one fourth of the total number of issues of each for the five-year period from 1950 to 1954 inclusive was surveyed for economic terms. As for the daily newspapers, one issue a month of each paper during the same period was chosen for analysis. This extensive sampling totaled 2,332 issues of 62 publications and embraced hundreds of millions of running words.

We set up a list of criteria to facilitate recognition of economic terms, to help distinguish between economic and noneco-

nomic terms, and to guide the analysis of the text and the tallying of the data. We decided that the unit of content—the article—would be a more valid measure of term usage than the actual frequency of occurrence of an economic term. Hence, irrespective of the number of times it occurred in a single article, an economic term was counted only once for that article.

Each unit of the publications survey was done under the supervision of a specialist in the area of the publications concerned. The newspaper analysis was made at the School of Journalism of the University of Missouri. The survey of farm journals was carried out under a contractual arrangement with the Department of Agricultural Journalism of the University of Wisconsin. Two members of the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University supervised respectively the analysis of union journals and that of company publications. The survey of general magazines for economic terms was made by a member of the staff of the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education.

Findings of the study. The publications study produced five lists of economic terms as follows: general magazines, 244 terms; general newspapers, 459; farm journals, 394; union journals, 351; and company publications, 235. The terms in each of these lists are grouped under appropriate categories and accompanied by frequency figures. With the single exception of the company publications, the density of economic terms in the newspapers, magazines, and journals analyzed is high. The term encountered in the largest number of articles in the general magazines studied is "communism." The newspaper analysis shows that terms listed under "The Business Enterprise," "Marketing and Distribution," and "Industrial Relations" occur with highest frequency. The illuminating fact revealed in the farm journal survey is that more economic terms are used belonging to "The Business Enterprise" and "Market-

ing and Distribution" than to "Agriculture," indicating clearly that farm magazines concern themselves primarily with farming as a business enterprise and with the farmer as a businessman. More than one half (54 per cent) of the economic terms counted in the union journals fall under the category of "Industrial Relations." Company publications find it necessary to use few economic terms.

Suggested uses of the lists. Intelligent newspaper and magazine reading requires an adequate understanding of the meaning and connotations of the economic terms commonly used in the press. Selections of terms for teaching and learning purposes may be made from the lists derived in this study. The lists may also be profitably used by writers on economic subjects as a guide in the choice of vocabulary. The compilations of economic terms should likewise prove helpful in suggesting evaluated topics or subtopics for developing teaching-learning units in economics at every level of education.

NEXT STEPS IN THE COUNCIL'S PROGRAM

The composite list indicates basic areas in economic education wherein teaching-learning units might usefully be written. The lists of economic terms derived in our publications survey suggest numerous concepts that would merit attention in the development of these units. With professional advice the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education will select from the composite list the topics best suited for unit preparation and will decide what to put in them. In the composition of these units we shall consult the viewpoints of the major groups in the economy as well as seek source

materials from pertinent associations and organizations. To the extent feasible we shall build the units around actual situations of an economic nature commonly faced by youth. Aware of the complexity of many economic topics, we shall strive for clarity and ready comprehension by cogent organization of the subject matter, graphic verbal and pictorial illustration, and other appropriate devices. Our goal will be an objective, impartial, and fair presentation of each unit in language that the learner will understand.

In the preparation of teaching-learning units we shall start with one on foundations of capitalism and another on contrasting economic systems. These units will be outlined, developed, and written by carefully chosen teachers of economics in consultation with competent specialists. The first drafts will be submitted to representatives of various groups in the economy for searching criticism. Revised drafts will then be made for experimental use in selected classrooms in different parts of the country. In the light of the experience thus gained, the units will be refined, revised, or rewritten as necessary. At each stage of the unit preparation we shall avail ourselves of the best advice obtainable from various quarters.

Our endeavor will be to produce units notable alike for their sound content, teachability, and lucid style. As circumstances permit, the work on succeeding units will be prosecuted. We hope that when the teaching-learning units become successively available, they will help to make economic literacy more widespread among our people, and so will be found useful as master keys to the understanding of our economy.



American educators, and educators at large, must begin to think of educational problems not only on a national but also on a world scale. No educator is worth the name who limits his outlook to the educational problems of his own environment.—MATTA AKRAWI in *Teachers College Record*.

Do-It-Yourself Learning

By PAUL WESTMEYER

A FEW DAYS AGO during fifth hour I had to attend a senior class meeting. The business had so far accumulated that the meeting ran right up to the bell ending the hour, and then, as often happens, several students stayed a little while longer to clear up some of the details that were left over. This made me a good ten minutes late for my sixth-hour biology class. I have had many classes which would have made the most of such unexpected freedom and at the very least would have had a gab fest; some of them would have gone much further. What actually did happen was, at least partly, the result of the method by which this biology class was being taught.

I will admit right now that these students are exceptional both in mental ability and in interest and that the method is not wholly mine. The students themselves had a great deal to do with establishing this method. Anyway, when I walked in the door ten minutes late, three students were bent over a five-gallon can of formaldehyde containing specimens for dissection and were selecting specimens to work on; the rest of the class either had their specimens already or were preparing their dissecting instruments and pans. No one was talking loudly or out of turn and not a single person was doing anything that was not businesslike

and pertinent to the study in which the class was engaged. Furthermore, this is not an isolated incident for this class; the usual situation is that unless I have been assigned or have accepted responsibility for certain material to be discussed, the class more or less ignores me (not in an insulting way, actually in a flattering way) and proceeds with the business at hand. I may have exaggerated this a bit, but the point is that the class is perfectly capable of running itself.

Why does this class behave in this admirable fashion in contrast to other classes I have had? One might explain it by talking about interest and motivation, but I think it goes back eventually to the fact that these students are *involved in the class activities* as much as, if not more than, I am. From the very beginning of the course the class and I decided that we wanted to learn by "jumping in and trying to swim," and that my job was to structure the course, introduce topics, assign work, test, and help the floundering when they were in danger of sinking. Aren't we told by educational psychologists that *activity* is necessary for learning and, furthermore, that the learner must perceive the situation as important to him personally? Activity, then, is the key to the method in this class. The students are enrolled in it because they seriously want to learn biology; they have some rather definite ideas on what they want to study, so they automatically perceive the work as important. Since biology covers such a wide field and since, with a few exceptions, I have no set convictions on what parts are the most important, there is available to these students a wide choice of activities—for them, not me, to engage in. The work in general consists of individual study on areas of interest and reports to the class on

EDITOR'S NOTE

The author of this article writes that it concerns an incident in his biology class in which class activities went on in his absence just as if he had been there. He attributes this occurrence to the method of teaching used in the biology class. He is instructor in education, College of Education, University of Illinois.

findings; pooling of knowledge thus gained; firsthand study as often as possible through field trips, lab work, dissections, and so on; individual projects (one day a week is wholly devoted to work on these); and lectures or discussions only when necessary.

We teachers do a lot of thinking and talking about transfer of learning and we always have to admit that facts do not transfer nearly so readily or so frequently as methods. The way we teach is more important than *what* we teach.

However we perceive the purpose of education, whether for life adjustment, college preparation, mental discipline, or what have you, one of our important aims is to develop the ability to solve problems. If *activity* is necessary for learning, and if *being involved* is important to provoke activity, and if *methods* transfer more readily than content, the best way to teach students to solve problems is to let them solve problems. The teacher would not be concerned, then, with getting the students to mouth a lot of facts or memorize a textbook. This is not to say that the students should not learn facts or use a textbook, for if they are to solve problems they certainly must think and this requires a certain amount of raw material. Neither do I advocate doing away with subject matter lines, for most subjects (I speak now for the sciences) are clearly outlined and distinct from others and there is little point in remixing them. (However, one should cross subject borders if the prob-

lem requires it.) Within a subject such as biology, one can teach the materials usually covered and still not be committed to a subject matter approach. There must be some structure for the course, there must be some basic material on which the student can begin, there must be some techniques that should be mastered (such as manipulation of laboratory apparatus), and these are best arranged in the existing subject matter fields.

But after such beginnings have been made, the teacher ought not to be concerned with imparting a certain set of facts but rather with developing the student's problem-solving ability in the given subject. Since the problems are restricted to a certain field, the desired facts will be learned anyway and they will be learned in a more thorough and enjoyable way.

This is do-it-yourself learning. The student does the learning rather than the teacher's doing the teaching. This is what we are striving for in the first place; we are not concerned with what a teacher teaches but with what the student learns. The best way to learn is by *doing*, and the best way to get students to *do* is to see to it that they are involved in the work. Another desirable result of this method of teaching is that the strain on the teacher is lessened considerably and his enjoyment at seeing students develop and grow in problem-solving dexterity can really make teaching worth while.



A Positive Approach to the Teaching of Math. My experience has taught me it is the techniques of mathematics that are sometimes extremely distasteful for certain types of students. Give these students an opportunity to see the thinking, the logic, involved in doing mathematics, and their attitudes toward the subject change. The gain is a larger number of people who are able to work intelligently with mathematics, a field which seems to be creeping into almost every area. Those students who are interested in mathematics as such or in engineering or in any of the sciences will come to their more advanced work with a conviction that mathematics is a way of *approaching problems* rather than a way of grinding out answers; these students will be better able to devise ways of solving a new, strange problem, one that is not a stereotype of the distance-rate-time, mixture, digit, or work sort.—AVERILL M. CHAPMAN in the *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

What Can Be Done About EDUCATIONAL TV?

By

FLORENCE THALHEIMER

"WHAT CAN BE DONE to let the television industry know how the public feels about educational programs?" was a question asked of me at a recent meeting of the American Association of University Women in Los Angeles.

Writing to a station when you enjoy a program and believe that it is highly suitable family fare is one constructive activity in which intelligent people can engage. Do you know what happens to a letter which arrives at a station? If it contains sound comment, it counts much more than you may think. I have been told that one letter which reached the hands of a station executive and was then passed over to the advertising agency caused the change of a national program. Just imagine what would happen if a large volume of letters descended upon a station expressing appreciation of a program! When a program is

entertaining and you say so, you not only help keep that program going but you also help promote more programs like it.

Why am I stressing *entertaining programs*? Because entertainment is a deciding factor whenever the question of an educational program arises. Station officials feel that *educational programs must be entertaining too*. If we want more educational programs on the air, we must therefore express ourselves and let officials know that we find a program entertaining.

What is educational TV? For years I have been wondering how the station executives arrive at their conclusions as to what *is* educational and what *is not*. I am not the only one who has been wondering about this. Educational circles have taken some steps on their own. The Federal Communications Commission has been cooperative. Educational stations have been created. But until now, the public has not taken big enough strides in the direction of educational television. When I say the public, I mean to include teachers and entire school systems.

"What can be done to insure that the public—groups and individuals alike—agree on what educational programs are and what they should be?" was a second question asked of me.

The National Audience Board is one answer to this question. It is a nonprofit, nonpolitical corporation set up by Peter Goelet, a New York benefactor. It was a program of my own, presented on the Los Angeles educational television station KTHE when I was the educational director

EDITOR'S NOTE

Most of us are aware of the time lag between educational theory and educational implementation. TV, with all its potentials, has been with us for several years and no one denies that it is an educational force of great significance. Some school systems, and some individuals, have worked hard to capitalize on the benefits of educational TV. The author is such a person. She is past president of the Beverly Hills (California) Board of Education and honorary executive chairman of the California Committee of the National Audience Board.

of that now defunct institution, that aroused the interest of Mr. Goelet in the possibilities of an organization such as the NAB.

Civic, cultural, and educational leaders are appointed to the NAB. Here are some absolute links with your field and mine: The NAB is dedicated to the development of high standards in the art and science of radio broadcasting and television through educational mediums. To achieve its purposes, it conducts a broad educational program through educators, teachers, forums, youth organizations, and educational, community, and civic groups. This program aims to enlighten and educate the listening public to the importance of developing and maintaining high standards in radio and television programs.

The NAB endeavors to ascertain, reflect, and stimulate public opinion in regard to radio and television programing; it previews and reviews radio and television programs through committees selected from among educators, teachers, religious and community leaders, and others, and publishes its findings; it provides a forum for public opinion and comment by listeners and viewers; it seeks to create a greater interest in educational programs; and it encourages a co-operative attitude among the allied interests in the radio and television industry and the public generally.

The NAB is not a censorship body. Its purpose—to foster better air shows and raise standards—is being accomplished through educational means. Persons associated with educational activities are sought and recruited to participate in its activities.

What about the qualifications of the people who are employed by the stations to give us educational programs? Are these executives trained in education before they become experts at giving us educational programs? I pose this important third question because I believe it leads to one of the answers to improvement in educational programs on television.

Several stations already have trained educators at the helm of their educational programs. However, the number is so small that it is almost negligible. Let me describe the programs of a few that do.

Station KECT, St. Louis, has now three experimental courses (spelling for second grades, grammar and composition, and science courses for high-school students), all integrated into school programing. Selected classes will receive their instruction from the daily TV programs. An achievement comparison will then be made between these students and a similar number of students in other schools not receiving these tele courses. Then they hope to test the effectiveness of TV teaching.

Station WQED, Pittsburgh, has the adult school of the air, a co-operative venture with the Pittsburgh Board of Education and independent school districts. Courses give full credit toward a high-school diploma. The need is great, as over 70 per cent of the people living in western Pennsylvania have not completed high school.

Station WCAU, Philadelphia, a commercial station, in co-operation with school districts, has actual courses co-ordinated with the classroom curriculum.

It is interesting that wherever trained educators are *not* in responsible executive capacities at the stations, the educational programs are *not* successful and are continuously in a state of flux, changing in subject and changing in time of day. The inconstancy is evidence of trial-and-error experimentation at that station.

Educators must show their interest. Your own schools might inquire of a station to find out if it does employ education-trained people to run educational programs. Also, teachers might lend a hand in any move to urge stations to place such people on salary. The station might either be induced to consider employment of education-trained people or might be induced to see to it that their present personnel acquire the necessary knowledge.

Let me now review briefly the activities of the Federal Communications Commission as far as educational stations are concerned.

The national total of educational TV stations is now twenty-five, the newest ones being in Chicago, Detroit, Miami, and Columbus, Ohio. Station KUHT, Houston, Texas, went on the air in May, 1953. It will telecast forty hours a week during the present academic year, of which 75 per cent will be live programming. This schedule includes eight college tele courses for credit. Station QUED, San Francisco (for which, incidentally, National Audience Board raised funds so that the station could remain on the air) has a nature study series for young students set up by a university woman. This station also has a new program on the basic principles of science presented by the American Chemical Society in connection with lectures of the famous British chemist, Michael Faraday. This program

arrangement shows how industry and educational TV can go hand in hand.

I firmly believe that educational programs should emanate not only from educational TV stations but also from commercial stations; that educational programs must have ready-made audiences; that educational programs must have large audiences.

Meanwhile, there are three concrete actions we all can take to help maintain high standards on the air: First, write and say that you enjoy an educational program if you do. Say that it is entertaining. Say that you want it kept on the air. Say that you want more programs like it. Second, get behind any movement to convince the stations that the technical maestros who produce educational programs should be education trained so that they *know* what they are doing. Third, help with scholarship activities that assist high-caliber men and women to go into the television field.



Factors Affecting Discipline in the Classroom

By RENATO MAZZEI
(Scranton, Pa.)

Education and discipline are virtually inseparable, yet even among educators discipline is a much maligned word. It is apparent from merely a cursory inspection that discipline connotes different things to different people. Most laymen think of discipline as physical punishment, and many school people contribute to this erroneous impression when they say, "This boy had to be disciplined," whereas they mean to convey the idea that the boy had to be punished.

Many students themselves unwittingly come closer to the true meaning of discipline when they refer to a teacher as one who "has" good discipline, in much the same manner as they would refer to one who has good manners, expressing it as a quality of the teacher and recognizing it in one whose classroom is orderly and businesslike. It is therefore not so much a condition that is imposed; rather, it is a quality that permeates the atmosphere and is readily perceived and accepted by everyone.

What are some of the factors most seriously affecting discipline in the classroom?

The use of punishment, or loss of discipline, indicates a breakdown in one or more of the three areas of control normally within command of the good teacher. The first of these is the lack of leadership control, wherein the teacher fails to exercise the qualities of leadership which students themselves know ought to be encountered in the classroom—qualities of superior ability, sound judgment, and high moral tone worthy of imitation. Next is the lack of equipment control, which is evidenced whenever a teacher fails to utilize the best available teaching aids or fails to use them to their greatest possible advantage. Teaching "only from the book" would be a prime example of a violation in this category. The third area of control which relates to the quality of discipline is the lack of activity control, in which the teacher fails to provide effective learning activities so vitally needed as a vehicle of instruction.

Dutch Secondary Schools: *Can We Learn From Them?*

By DEAN LOBAUGH

DURING the school year 1954-55, I had the opportunity to view European secondary education from two vantage points: as a visiting teacher in two secondary schools and as the parent of a teen-age daughter attending one of these schools. The country was the Netherlands; its educational program can well be claimed as representative of the best in western Europe.

My assignment was in a provincial capital in the Netherlands, as a guest teacher in two schools roughly corresponding to our high schools in the ages of the pupils attending, and in the program of studies. One was exclusively a girls' school—this my daughter attended—and the other was coeducational. These institutions—Der Hogere Burger-scholen (people's high schools)—rank slightly below the Gymnasium, the traditional secondary school, in academic rank and respectability, but they are still highly selective. Admittance is by examination, and continuance is based on hard work, parental pressure, the grace of the teachers, and the ability of the students to "take it."

In 1951, the last year for which I have accurate figures, of all pupils attending Dutch schools, only 4.4 per cent were enrolled in what I have called high schools and 0.7 per cent in Gymnasiums, so that only slightly over 5 per cent of the pupils in that year were to be found in the secondary schools of the country. In the same year, in our western community, 41 per cent of all our pupils were in junior and senior high schools and 59 per cent were in elementary schools.

The Dutch high school includes generally grades 7 to 12 or 13, by our reckon-

ing. Another way of judging the selectivity of the Dutch secondary school is to point out that less than 10 per cent of Dutch children ever get into a secondary school, and of this 10 per cent perhaps not more than 50 per cent finish. It is not my intention to ignore the excellent technical schools in the country, which provide an educational path for the pupils who wish to continue beyond the compulsory school age of fourteen years eight months, and into which students who drop out of the academic schools often transfer. My point is that it is the Dutch high school and the Dutch Gymnasium with which the American high school is usually compared, and such comparisons often fail to note the basic difference between the institutions of the two countries—one deliberately selective, and the other deliberately inclusive or comprehensive. It is in the light of this difference I wish to make my observations.

These aspects of Dutch education I could admire:

For the most part, education is taken seriously in the Netherlands, not only by pro-

EDITOR'S NOTE

In line with the policy of emphasizing comparative education, THE CLEARING HOUSE wishes to publish articles about school systems in other countries. We invite contributions from persons who have had experiences in schools overseas or in Latin America. This article on Dutch high schools is the outcome of the author's year in Holland as a Fulbright lecturer. He is assistant superintendent of schools, Eugene, Ore.

fessional educators but by the public and, perhaps most important of all, by the pupils. In the tight little society of the Netherlands, formal education is imperative if a person is to live his life above the ranks of unskilled labor. Even the greengrocer cannot set up a shop until he has a diploma attesting to his fitness to do greengrocery. Schools abound in the land, from the simplest ones teaching rudimentary household and trade skills to fine universities. And in the secondary schools, pupils struggle through a rigid, exhausting program of studies and face rigid and exhausting examinations because the rewards of accomplishment are great—an assured place in the social and economic life of the country.

A corollary of this attitude is the respect given learning and the learned person. The Dutch are good business people and business acumen is admired, but it is the professor who really rates the respect of the Dutch people. When a professor in one of the universities delivers himself of a pronouncement on some political, social, or economic question, his remarks are taken seriously. Similarly, the teacher in a secondary school is given a measure of respect, both socially and academically, that the visiting American could not help admire. Secondary teachers look upon themselves as scholars, or "masters" of a subject; the personal libraries of secondary teachers are impressive.

The mastery of languages is an aspect of Dutch education which makes a considerable impact on the American teacher. English, French, and German are compulsory, in addition to Dutch. And in the Gymnasium, a reading knowledge of Latin and Greek is also required. I was able to give instruction in history with reasonable effectiveness at the beginning of the year to third-form pupils, who had had English for only two years, three lessons a week. Presumably a French or German visiting teacher could have done a similar thing.

The written examination for English at the close of the high-school course calls for a high level of understanding of the language, and each pupil has an individual oral examination conducted wholly in the language under examination. It is true that the emphasis in school is upon reading and translating, but the spoken English of older pupils is often surprisingly good. The tendency of the Dutch to shrug off compliments on their linguistic accomplishments by saying, "We have to know languages; who speaks Dutch?" does not minimize the educational achievement.

The visiting teacher is impressed by the systematic and thorough way, for the most part, Dutch students work. They carry a heavy load of separate subjects—as high as seventeen a week—and the amount of homework assigned is consistently heavy, yet I rarely found pupils unprepared. Occasionally they complained about assignments, and sometimes they made excuses (always beforehand to the teacher), but generally they came through. They made careful notes about their assignments and they appeared generally to have systematic plans for their home study. As an unreconstructed American youth, my daughter learned a good bit about system, about neatness, and about thoroughness in preparation of her lessons.

On the whole, the students were personally quite delightful. There were a few who gave the teachers, including me, a bad time, and there were aspects of their school behavior which, as I shall note later, left something to be desired. But they generally were wholesome, friendly, attractive, and alert. From the standpoint of selectivity, they represented about the same kind of people as we find in the National Honor Society at home.

As an American, these aspects I found undesirable:

It is inconceivable that Holland, with its unique geographical setting, its homogeneous and relatively immobile popula-

tion, and its ancient traditions, should have a kind of education which suits our so vastly different America. A good country ought to be able to give some credit for its standing to its educational system, and I found Holland (used interchangeably here with the Netherlands) a splendid country. My negative reactions, then, are those of an American who was seeking for answers for his own country, not one sitting in judgment on another land.

The high degree of selectivity and the resultant number of dropouts was a source of distress to one who has been accustomed to a school program aimed to serve as many persons, and for as long a time, as possible. At the age of fourteen years eight months, pupils are free to leave school, and they do so in droves. Of the fifteen-year-olds in the Netherlands in 1951, only 30 per cent were in any kind of full-time school (secondary, advanced elementary, technical); 36 per cent were in trade and industry but attending part-time schools, mostly evening; and 34 per cent were completely finished with school. The selectivity continues to operate on those who enter the secondary schools, with about a 50 per cent casualty. Of twenty-eight pupils in a fourth form which I taught last year, only seventeen were permitted to go on into the fifth, or top, form this year. "You must remember, we are a selective institution," said the headmaster.

The necessity for early choice is a feature of all western European school systems, and one about which there is some unhappiness, especially in England. The Dutch take it for granted, however, that at the age of eleven or twelve, educational decisions can be made by and for a child which in effect determine his social, intellectual, and economic status for the rest of his life. Pupils travel with some uniformity though with a greater incidence of failure than with us, through the six grades of a common elementary school, but at that point they scatter in many directions. The academically superior will become part of the elite of the *Gymnasium*;

the poorest students, or those with no economic or social backing, will remain in the elementary school until the earliest possible moment of leaving. In between are various levels of academic and technical education into which pupils will be shunted.

It is possible for a student who has been designated for an academically (and socially) inferior school to move by his own efforts to another level, but in actual practice this seldom happens. The educational pattern for each pupil is pretty well defined at the end of the sixth grade. In a meeting of Dutch secondary-school headmasters, where criticisms and questions were invited, I asked this question: "Don't you think that this time of decision for a child comes very early in his life?" The answer was significant: "No, we think we can tell very well at that age what a child is capable of."

Strongly implied in the paragraph above is the relationship of the school system to the social structure of the country. It is not academic ability alone which determines whether a pupil enters and remains in a certain kind of school; the economic and social status of the parents is a most significant factor. I am fully aware that there is a strong relationship in this country between economic and social status and extent of schooling, but there the very structure of the school system serves to maintain the class system. To a high degree, pupils from certain classes of society attend certain kinds of schools. The opportunity for social mobility provided by the American school is present only theoretically in the Dutch secondary school. It was pointed out to me as a matter of some note that of the 200 girls last year in the girls' high school, one was the daughter of a laborer!

The rigid system of final examinations, uniform for the nation, is hotly debated in the Netherlands, and many of my own negative reactions are shared by some Dutch educators. A student has to know something to get out of a secondary school through the right door. But the pressure on teachers

and pupils is terrific. Not only is the student's career at stake; so is the teacher's and so is the headmaster's. The entire secondary-school program, especially that of the final three years, is geared to the *examen*; the pressure mounts steadily year by year. The examinations, written and oral, several days each, take place in May and June; from February on, the top form in one school was being readied for them. Some students, obviously, crack up, but ability to take pressure is one of the conscious parts of the program of selectivity; nervous resistance as well as academic knowledge is being put to the test.

Even more serious, from my standpoint, is the effect the examinations have on teaching and on curriculum. Generally, the pressure is such that only those things which will come under examination can find any place in the instructional program. To be a successful teacher in a Dutch secondary school you don't have to concern yourself about curriculum development, or enrichment, or motivation, or guidance. You teach the prescribed program, and you teach it thoroughly. There are teachers who do wish to concern themselves about other things, but they say, "What can we do in the face of the examinations?"

The program of studies in a Dutch secondary school is rigidly prescribed, with almost no elective opportunities. Hence pupils move through the school by sections, or forms, with everyone taking the same subjects. If a student has a certain number of unsatisfactory marks (three or four in certain key subjects out of a possible thirteen to seventeen), he repeats the entire year, once more covering work in which he may have been highly satisfactory. The marking system, with 10 as the top figure, is pretty severe. A 5 is failing (or unsatisfactory), but a 7 is cause for jubilation. When I was inclined at first to mark good students as I would here, I was told that the Dutch have a saying that a 10 is for God the Father, and a 9 for the Son. A schoolmate

of my daughter's last year recently wrote that her first report this fall was "very good"; she had only two failing grades.

On the whole, the secondary curriculum seemed pretty sterile and largely divorced from pupil interests or life needs. "I could read Greek and Latin when I got out of Gymnasium," said a Dutch businesswoman to me, "but I really didn't know how to do a single thing." There has grown up in the Netherlands a folk high school, basically designed to minister to the real needs of the adult population through short-term classes. Most Dutch secondary schools are now sending certain older classes to these folk centers for week-long "retreats," where problems in which the pupils themselves are interested form the basis for learning. But once this diversion is over, back they go to the things that count on the examinations.

It is hard for me to justify the fractionizing of the curriculum as it takes place in the Dutch secondary school. We are guilty enough of this practice in this country, but to see pupils hammering away at fifteen subjects a week, quite unrelated and each under the direction of a subject matter specialist, was disturbing to one who believes that students must constantly be made to see relationships if their learning is to have vitality and meaning.

As a result of these characteristics, what happens in the classrooms?

Some very good things result. The students prepare their lessons, and they do learn. But there were certain unfavorable aspects of life in the classroom that I must comment upon.

In spite of the selective nature of the student bodies, and the respect in which teachers generally are held, discipline problems were prevalent and at times serious enough to cause teacher failure. These did not take the form of overt acts; classes sometimes simply got out of control. The causes, as I saw them, were boredom from too easy work, frustration from too difficult work, and, most significant, a lack of training in

self-discipline. A wise teacher doesn't leave his Dutch classroom unattended. Students were quite boisterous in halls, and in the classroom before the teacher rapped for order. The constant pressure makes the blowing off of steam natural and perhaps necessary.

I expected to find in the Dutch schools marked evidence of intellectual curiosity, of a desire to learn for learning's sake. I was disappointed. There was some evidence of this, but in my opinion not so much as one will find among the better students in a comprehensive American high school. Most students are content to learn what they are required to know—no more, no less. They do their school tasks because that is what is expected of them. They are not trained to ask questions, only to answer them. An officer on a Dutch liner who has sailed with many American and Dutch exchange students since the war said to me that American students want a great deal more information about every subject than do Dutch students. "You have taught in our school system," he said. "You understand why that is."

Students are motivated almost wholly by extrinsic methods. The reward of a passing mark, the threat of failure, humiliation before classmates—do these seem familiar?—are the common ways to get pupils to work.

In spite of the generally high moral tone of the Dutch people, "cribbing" reaches epidemic proportions in the classroom unless systematically controlled. It took me a while to learn that I must always make out two sets of questions and give them to pupils in alternate rows. The pupils do not see cribbing as a moral issue. If you speak to a student, he stops without embarrassment until your back is turned, then he is at it again. The bald theory seems to be that the ends, passing marks, justify the means.

Most serious, I think, is the fact that the system does not encourage independent thinking or independent research. School libraries are either nonexistent or are

available to pupils on a highly restricted basis. I soon learned that I could not expect students to look up the answer to any question or to secure any information unless the material was in the textbook. They had neither the time nor the training necessary to pursue a subject independently. The pupils learned lessons assigned from the textbooks, and the teachers quizzed them; for the most part, that is what going to school consists of. I had some success in conversation classes with student talks and reports, but generally pupils found it most difficult to make any original contributions. An examination question which called on a pupil to make an original application of facts which had been learned—"In the light of these facts, how would you interpret . . .?"—left most pupils completely baffled.

What can we learn from the Dutch?

We could continue at length with a discussion of the Dutch arguments about their own educational system; education is a controversial subject there as here. Some would modify the rigid system; others defend it and view with alarm evidences that progressive ideas have made some inroads already. But seeing the system now from the American side of the water, I am willing to say that the Dutch have something to teach us but not a great deal. Generally, their secondary schools bear many resemblances to our own high schools in the selective days of fifty years ago. Certainly those schools were not all bad, and for certain kinds of students they were very good.

The Dutch schools teach us that good students, under either external or internal compulsions, can work harder and acquire more factual knowledge than do typical American high-school students today. With so much knowledge extant in our modern world, it is not a bad thing to get as much of it as possible. In certain fields of learning, my Dutch experience re-emphasizes, there is a place for *memoriter* learning. One cannot settle for a general impression of French irregular verbs. The Dutch are good

linguists, not simply because they have a flair for languages but because they strive for accuracy.

Dutch students have some fun, but the general attitude which prevails that schooling is serious business can well be copied here. The Dutch secondary school is not the pupil's social clubhouse.

Scholarship and scholarly people command a respect we could well emulate.

Beyond these points, I am not willing to go. I feel that the values in Dutch educa-

tion can be, and often are, incorporated in American schools without a destruction of our powerful American values. Education for all, education for social competence, education as the mainstay of our peculiar way of life—these aims I would never sacrifice to education for education's sake. The dream that through mass education the intellectual and social level of a whole people can be raised is a true American dream; I for one believe in it more strongly than ever.



The Classroom Teacher Should Be Heard

By PAUL E. KIRSCH
(Schenectady, N.Y.)

In any program of instruction the teacher has to recognize some deep and far-reaching problems. In secondary schools, in addition to the new worlds of puberty and adolescence, many learners are encumbered by inability to read, by frustration from the difficulty of adequate verbal presentation, and by a feeling of insecurity when faced with the body of knowledge that many teachers assume they must master. Other learners, especially those with over 130 I.Q., often do not encounter enough challenging activities to keep them from boredom.

Let us realize that teachers do find it much easier to teach for the needs of the average student. The "plus" and "minus" learners receive less individualized attention than they merit. It is easy for critics of education to condemn this situation, for it is certainly not a laudable one. However, few critics have come up with concrete suggestions to correct this fault. Indeed, even professional educators have difficulty here. Why is this so?

First, we know that laymen rarely attempt to do more than amateurishly diagnose their own medical condition. They consult their physician, their dentist, or their psychiatrist. In the field of education, however, they have discovered that the lack of unity on educational theories and practices makes the field ripe for their critiques. They become vociferous advocates of any appealing doctrine, and their arguments have strength because they are expressed by those whose children are being taught and who are holders of the purse strings. They

actually see very little inside the school, inside the classroom.

Second, professional educators who answer the attacks of the public, who take the credit for pats on the back, who advance theories and ideologies, in many instances are too far away from actual classroom training and technique. They have worked their way from the classroom situation to guidance, administrative, or training posts and have failed to renew constantly the position of the actual classroom teacher. What they see in the classroom they see occasionally.

The person who has the definite responsibility is the same person who gets the blame: the classroom teacher. We must realize that every one of the competent classroom teachers does have a way of fighting the problems, and many of them do a terrific job. Their one trouble is that they are not heard by the public. Their main outlet is the professional journal, for few commercially popular organs will spend time on the opinions of "mere" classroom teachers. Moreover, too often the teacher is so burdened that there is no actual time for him to set down his suggestions for print, and the things that have worked successfully for him are not available for the public's critical eye or for the enlightenment of his colleagues. Even with apathy in some sections or with a lack of time to make their views known, our faith must rest with the rank and file and from them must come the ideas, for with them lies the responsibility.

READING WITHOUT TEARS

By JOHN W. ZORN

RECENT STUDIES reveal that even in so-called sectioned or homogeneous English classes, reading abilities range from four to six grades. Therefore, it is not surprising that colleges now find it necessary to require a number of their freshmen and others to attend reading-help clinics or workshops—with and without credit. The reading picture is such that the high school can no longer shrug off its responsibility.

Because most of our poor readers can be rehabilitated through systematic developmental reading practice, this topic should receive priority over any other English skill. The heartening fact is that basic developmental techniques are already being utilized effectively by many teachers of English. For all practical purposes, developmental reading differs from remedial reading in the degree of pupil retardation. Remedial reading, which calls for specialized knowledge and techniques, is best left to people trained in that field.

What are some of the signs of inefficient reading? Specifically, what common reading errors should the garden variety English teachers be expected to detect and to correct? On the basis of experience and research, the following reading deficiencies may be corrected through systematic practice in the average English classroom:

Reading word by word

Rereading of words

Lip reading

Failure to comprehend meaning (vocabulary and context)

Wandering of attention

Laziness

What can the teacher of English do about deficiencies in reading? First, he must determine the individual reading errors of his pupils. Fortunately, there are a number of easy-to-administer reading tests. Supervising principals and department heads are only too happy to recommend such tests for class needs. Several of the better known ones are the Cooperative Reading Test, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and the Syracuse University Reading and Study Skills Inventory.

How can the teacher stimulate the pupil "to drink"? Assuming the teacher has screened his pupils by means of a reading test and he knows the chief reading deficiency of each pupil, what now? Correct motivation will pay rich dividends for the simple reason that no teacher can teach much of anything if the pupil does not want to learn. Perhaps the most meaningful form of motivation is a class discussion on the practical values of effective reading. In college-bound classes, it would be better to point out that college students are expected to know (1) how to skim through many source materials; (2) how to read rapidly through chapters of various books; (3) how to study carefully the basic textbooks; and (4) how to correlate all the materials. In general English groups, often the most difficult to motivate, it is wise to emphasize that accurate and rapid reading is considered of prime importance for success and advancement in such diversified agencies as business schools, industrial

EDITOR'S NOTE

It seems common sense to believe that in reading, as in other activities, practice makes perfect. To read well without consistent attention to the development of techniques of reading is unrealistic. The author of this down-to-earth and up-to-the-minute treatise on reading procedure is chairman of the English department at the Weston (Massachusetts) High School.

schools, business firms, and the armed forces. It is now common practice for industry to send promising employees to special clinics in order to improve reading comprehension and speed.

At this point, individual conferences are in order. Here the teacher may reveal that one pupil reads at the rate of 90 words a minute (he should read at least 150-200 words a minute). Another pupil's comprehension level is grade 8 (it should be at least grade 10). A third pupil doesn't comprehend much of what he reads. Thus, each pupil is made aware of his particular reading problem. If the problem is one of severe retardation or one which appears to stem from organic or psychological factors, it should be reported to the principal, to the head of the department, or to the guidance director. A serious reading problem calls for trained remedial teachers.

How can the teacher plan class reading practice? When the teacher has sold the idea of improving reading and when he has conferred with his pupils, then what? Now he should plan a regular schedule of class reading practice. The co-operation of the pupils will be practically insured by the fact that reading development will not add extra assignments to their homework load. The advantages of this setup for the teacher are complete control of materials and the elimination of prepping ahead, which might invalidate the progress checks. Classroom reading practice may be planned via two main avenues: regular literature assignments and reading-development textbooks. If the literature text is used, the teacher must prepare specific questions designed to check comprehension and reading

rate. This involves checking the average number of words per page, for the purpose of determining the number of words read at the end of each minute. If the teacher chooses to use a well-planned reading-improvement textbook, he will find a practical, easy-to-follow series of lesson plans offering these advantages: tested and varied reading selections; valid and diversified questions; simplified word count and reading rate devices.

Regardless of the materials the teacher uses, the important thing is regular practice. A certain day of the week should be set aside as reading-development day. The actual reading session may follow this outline:

- (1) Materials should be passed to pupils.
- (2) Reading and scoring explanations should be made.
- (3) Class questions should be answered.

Some teachers find it helpful to call "time" at one-minute intervals, permitting the pupils to mark (in pencil) the points at which each minute is called. To save time the pupils may correct their answers, using colored crayon to remove the temptation to "change" an answer. A simple progress chart (on standard graph paper) should be used to demonstrate progress to both pupil and teacher. One side of this graph can denote comprehension improvement; the other can show rate of reading growth.

In the final analysis, no system will work *if all of the people concerned don't*. As teachers of English, we must remember that true progress in making efficient readers of our youth depends on continuous and specific practice on all levels because reading is a skill which is never completely mastered.



The Three R's and the Four P's. Education fails unless the Three R's at one end of the school spectrum lead ultimately to the Four P's at the other—Preparation for Earning, Preparation for Living, Preparation for Understanding, Preparation for Participation in the problems involved in the making of a better world.—NORMAN COUSINS.

Knitted Math.

By MARY N. WANDLING

WHEN I TOOK MY CLASS of mentally retarded junior-high-school girls, I soon realized from their attempts to solve simple problems that many math. terms had little or no meaning to them. Despite the fact that these girls had spent one year and some two years in the junior-high-school classes, they didn't see any difference between an inch, a foot, or a yard, or between a quarter and a half of a dollar. Not even after they made a study of these terms measuring inches, feet, and yards, reading and memorizing the long measure table, and studying halves and quarters, did these terms have any real meaning to them. But as we worked on a class project where handwork was involved and they had to use these same terms and many others, these terms became meaningful.

When a class project was suggested, it was natural for them to decide on handwork. I had observed during their intermission period in the morning that many had some handwork to do, mostly knitting, as they ate a snack and talked.

After some discussion, an afghan was suggested for the "crippled" children, a class of trainables who are in school for the first time and who rest after lunch. The blanket was to be for them. We took rulers and a yardstick and went down to the medical room to measure the cots where this cover

was to be used. The class decided on 36 inches by 48 inches. A math. lesson followed our visit, involving such terms as width, length, length in feet, length in yards, and so on. The next decision was to choose the design and colors. This was taken care of in the art class, with the help of the teacher in charge.

Since the blanket was 36 inches wide and 48 inches long, the class decided on 6-inch squares, six squares across the top and eight on the sides. A drawing was made on the blackboard by one of the girls, using twenty-four black squares, sixteen red ones, and eight yellow ones. Those who knew how to knit began casting on thirty stitches, or five to an inch. As needles clicked, we reviewed the size in inches, feet, and yards. Each day someone who didn't know how to knit was taught. Soon all were knitting, and as we had only six pairs of needles, we had to take turns in using them at night. At no time were any needles idle, as there were anxious volunteers. There was much to be done—forty-eight squares in all. I helped only by letting them help themselves; they did the work and seemed happy because it was their responsibility.

As the afghan progressed, we learned more math. terms. Each block was a square, and the afghan was the shape of a rectangle. One girl suggested a fringe for the edges. Each skein of wool was marked 100 per cent wool, so we studied percentage. Since each skein weighed 12 ounces, we found out what the entire project would weigh in pounds. Much was learned from the purchase of the needles and wool. Since each skein cost 35 cents, or three for a dollar, how much would we save by the latter method of buying? We discussed and studied other terms such as bill, paid, cash,

EDITOR'S NOTE

How can pupils who are not proficient in the skills required for mathematics profit by the study of mathematics? The author of this article, who is on the staff of Junior High School No. 4 in Trenton, New Jersey, describes the program she developed to make mathematics meaningful to a class of mentally retarded pupils.

charge account, and receipt. Several girls were able to make up problems based on the project. These were kept on the blackboard and reviewed daily.

We worked on the multiplication of fractions, having started with the problem of how much wool we must buy if one skein does a square and a half.

Although the knitted math. project is completed and we are still struggling with

math. terms, each pupil has had a chance to contribute something to her own show. Some who didn't seem interested at first asked to be taught. Many of these girls will be leaving school in the near future to take their places in the community, but they have had an opportunity to use needed knowledge in future life situations. These experiences should be of value to them in postschool social and economic adjustment.



Teacher Treatment of Tardiness

By LOUIS A. D'AMICO
(New Orleans, La.)

Tardiness is a problem common to many classroom teachers. Much too often a teacher's treatment of tardiness is either too severe, or it is of the *laissez-faire* variety. The teacher may be more concerned with the strict enforcement of school rules that pertain to tardiness than with the adjustment of the tardy student. Punitive, indulgent, or impersonal treatment of tardiness does not provide the solution to the problem. On the other hand, if a teacher were to try to find the "why" of the student's tardiness, she may obtain the clue to the "how" to treat the problem in the future.

This report deals with the type of action that teachers have taken with tardy students. The data were obtained from the files of a principal's office in a junior-senior high school with an enrollment of approximately 500 students and a faculty of thirty teachers. The data cover the number of students who were tardy and the frequency of their tardiness during the 1953-1954 school year.

A total of 247 students were tardy 613 times during one school year, or an average of 2.48 times each. The range was from one to seven tardinesses. The boys were tardy more frequently than the girls, and the mean number of times tardy was greater for the boys than for the girls. Approximately half the students in the school had no incidence of tardiness. The school population of 500 was divided almost equally between boys and girls.

The type of action taken by teachers on tardiness was not determined by the frequency of a student's tardiness, but varied from teacher to teacher. For example, one teacher's practice was to penalize a tardy student part of his grade for each tardiness, including first offenders. Another teacher took no action with first, second, or third offenders. Approximately 40 per cent of all tardinesses were not acted upon (44 per cent, boys; 34 per cent, girls). The next most frequent teacher action was one half-hour detention either before or after school. This type of discipline occurred in approximately 38 per cent of the tardy cases (33 per cent of the boys and approximately 45 per cent of the girls). A few teachers kept tardy students an hour after school. Less frequently, teachers issued warnings or held conferences with the tardy student. In some instances, extra homework was assigned, or students were required to write "I shall not be tardy" a certain amount of times on the blackboard.

An analysis of the data shows that the faculty of this junior-senior high school of approximately 500 students treated the tardiness problem from either the *laissez-faire* or punitive basis. Such treatment is not consistent with modern educational practice and does not provide the tardy student the opportunity to learn from his experience. The teacher's aim should be prevention of tardiness, not the punishment of tardy students.

PARENTAL MEMORANDA

By PAUL W. SCHMIDTCHEN

ADMINISTRATORS CAN NO LONGER sit idly by and hope that the latest and best in educational philosophy and psychology will automatically blossom in their community. Rather, the administrators must take the initiative and stand ready to do something. A form of direct communication must be seized upon to explain, to prepare, to nourish those seeds of thought you desire and trust will grow in your locale. You may even wish to do some of the sowing.

An administrator's lot is not an easy one, and there are just so many hours in the day. Community talks, participation in panel discussions, exhibit nights, P.T.A. meetings all help, but the audience is still restricted; and more often than not, the very parents you hope to contact seldom show at the aforementioned affairs. What to do?

A suggestion would be parental memoranda. Schools generally have long since accepted the need for some form of a report card. Granted that a negative connotation is too often engaged via statistical summaries, still the parents are consulted and informed. Why not the same reasoning with other school pursuits (a most appealing word), this time couched in precise form?

EDITOR'S NOTE

How students behave, how they dress, how they react to school and out-of-school life are the concern of principals and teachers. The author, who is principal of the Metuchen (New Jersey) High School, has been following the practice of writing a letter to parents of the high-school pupils, and he makes straightforward comments. Parents are reported to react favorably to these letters. After all, parents don't want to be pampered; they like straight talk.

Surely, it is worth a try—no matter the dire extremity of attempting to influence the bounce of a ball or the rebound of an idea.

Metuchen High School sends home such a letter with the pupil's report card every other month. Results so far have been tantalizing, despite the inevitable loss in transit. However, comments and action, though slow in coming, indubitably acknowledge that a move has been made in the right direction. One of the more recent attempts follows:

METUCHEN HIGH SCHOOL OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL

DEAR PARENT:

A current problem facing many schools stems from the dress and personal appearance of its pupils. Actually this is a family matter; it should not be a school decision, for the parents presumably must have given approval before the youngster left home. And it is a fact that the dress of a person decidedly affects his personal behavior. Certainly, also, it follows that others will note and act on such sensitivity. What kind of a label will your boy or girl have, for other people to rate?

A case in point: A businessman advertised for a boy to help in his office, and a great number applied for the place. He selected one and dismissed the rest.

"I should like to know on what grounds you selected that boy, who had not a single recommendation," said a friend who was in the office.

"You are mistaken," said the employer; "he had a great many fine recommendations. He knocked before entering the office, and closed the door quietly after him, showing that he is courteous. He picked up an envelope that I had purposely laid on the floor and placed it on the table, while the rest stepped over it, showing that he is orderly. He waited quietly for his turn, instead of pushing and crowding, showing that he is thoughtful and considerate. While I talked to him, I noticed that his clothes were in good taste and were clean; his hair was neatly combed; he didn't slouch or chew gum, showing he came from a home where such results are highly regarded. He answered distinctly and was not amiss in saying 'sir' or 'thank you.' Do you not call these things recommendations?"

Now, one does not legislate good taste. Yet I suppose there are some parents (and teachers) who would want to have schools pass "laws" to insist on proper attire. *Sic jubeat necessitas!* But where does this policy stop once started? We are a public school, not a private school; we must be concerned about the many, and denying school for "laws" such as this may well be questioned. Assuredly, however, something should be done!

Certainly, students should be encouraged to appear at their best at all times. Boys should wear their shirts buttoned and tucked inside trousers. Girls should wear their blouses neatly tucked inside their skirts. The following are *not* considered good taste for school: pedal pushers, dungarees,

Bermuda shorts, tight sweaters, strapless dresses, excessive make-up, pin curls, decorated leather jackets, tight-fitting trousers, T shirts, club regalia, slovenly garb, gum chewing, extreme haircuts. Parental co-operation along these lines should suffice.

The desire to conform to standards of the age group is stronger than the response to adult guidance. If each family would expedite (a good army term) proper deportment and appearance, the blatant hobbledohoy would soon disappear. Teachers will educate for reasonable acceptance; the parent sets the tone and pattern at home.

Sincerely yours,

PAUL W. SCHMIDTCHEN, *Principal*



Transform the PTA into a PTSA

High-school students are not members of the Parent-Teacher Association in most schools. Where this is true, the first and most important step that needs to be taken is that of transforming the Parent-Teacher Association into a Parent-Teacher-Student Association. This change can improve the association in many ways. Among these are improved attendance and improved opportunities for accomplishing its purposes.

Good attendance at meetings is important because an organization can have little influence on, or get help from, members who remain away from meetings. In most schools, attendance at elementary school PTA's has almost invariably been better than attendance on the high-school level. This was true also at our high school until students were made a part of the association. Since then, parent attendance has been excellent. Before the students were made a part of the PTA, they not only had no interest in the association, but also they actually discouraged their parents from going to PTA meetings. After the students were made a part of the association and had a part in planning its meetings and in getting the members out, many of them urged their parents to attend. Needless to say, parents are more inclined to go to meetings that they are supposed to attend when their sons and daughters go and expect their parents to do the same. Increased attendance increases the opportunities to accomplish the purposes of the organization.

One of the main purposes of such an association is to solve school problems. It should be obvious

that problems involving the students can be solved with more facility when the students are present to participate in formulating solutions. Not only do they have more firsthand knowledge of many school problems than do parents, but also they are ready to accept and support solutions that they help to formulate.

When parents and teachers, without the participation of students, strive to create the kind of schools that will produce good citizens, they are overlooking a real opportunity. Giving students, in co-operation with parents and teachers, experience in using methods by which citizens in a democratic society attempt to solve problems on the local level is a valuable procedure indeed. Many of these young people will, soon after leaving high school, obtain jobs, pay taxes, and start raising families. They will soon be voting in school board elections and for special village projects to provide additional tax money for both buildings and for teachers' salaries. What better preparation can high-school students have for these important responsibilities than participation at this stage? Can there be much doubt that active participation in a good PTSA will give them attitudes and knowledge of school needs and procedures that will influence their behavior now and in the future? Is this not one of the best opportunities for the schools to build an interested and loyal clientele for the future?—R. C. BRYAN and MRS. MILDRED BEISEL in the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Miss Teacher of the Twentieth Century

By
REEF WALDREP

THE TEACHER whom our grandfathers and mothers knew doesn't exist any more except as a myth. But the myth is a tough old girl and she still persists.

I read 131 state journals in thirty-five states to find the teacher as she actually is in the 1950's. I read only the articles written by teachers. The purpose was to find out what the classroom teachers in public schools have to say on the issues that bother our critics—and in the hunt I found the new teacher.

Leo Gurko, in his book *Heroes, Highbrows and the Popular Mind*, writes about the image of the American teacher in the minds of the public. He says: "... She has been the angular spinster in whom the warmth of life has long since chilled, who takes out her frustrations and vinegary bitterness upon the students; the pretty young schoolmarm who is just waiting to get married and will leave her class the moment that anticipated event rescues her from the fate of the first type; or the bluff battle-ax, efficient, aggressive, loud voiced, and about as womanly as a two-ton truck."

EDITOR'S NOTE

In most respects it is impossible to generalize on the characteristic procedures of good teachers. But it is possible to describe what a good teacher does. For example, a good teacher does not confuse the welfare of the children with personal attitudes toward the profession of teaching. The author is registrar in the junior college of the Meridian (Mississippi) public schools.

In the minds of most, the teacher in America traditionally belongs to a class that is poor, bookish, impractical, and cloistered. And now, of course, there is the image of the "progressive teacher." This *progressive* symbol in the minds of the public looks to Dewey as to a god.

After carefully pulling the thought and thinking out of articles by teachers all over the United States, I saw a new type of teacher emerging. The strongest implication was that America has produced a new type of teacher who is in keeping with the American spirit of pragmatism, empiricism; the spirit of working and doing in the realm of the practical and the real; the spirit of seeking achievement in the here and now; the spirit of trying to get ahead. The new teacher is not bookish, cloistered, and separate from the crowd. The new type teacher is very much a part of the American community. The new teacher is a far cry from the helpless academics of American folklore. She dances, sings, plays, creates, travels, builds, laughs, and mingles. She is concerned with the mundane, the practical problems of everyday living. She does not write philosophical dissertations on abstract subjects.

The new teacher who wrote in the midst of intellectual upheaval is not a philosopher, a hairsplitter, or a whiner. In fact, the new teacher is not a scholar at all—a scholar who quotes and footnotes and refers to the authorities of antiquity or of the century. The great educators are not called in for testimony in the writings of teachers: Dewey, Kilpatrick, Rousseau, Thorndike,

Bode, or any that can be named. The new teacher does not quote; she acts, she solves problems, and she builds and produces. The new teacher does not serve the agents of university or administrator. The new teacher is an agent of free inquiry on all levels. Her major emphasis is child development, around which she structures her program.

This is not to say that the old teacher does not survive in American classrooms, but she does not have a voice in the professional publications. Perhaps the old teacher who paddles, represses, and restricts for the sake of rote learning has been changed by the professional ideals of the new teacher.

I abstracted the issues of American education from the literature of criticisms to get my issues for my dissertation at the University of Tennessee. They were to be my yardsticks in measuring the minds of American teachers. But I found the teacher in her writing oblivious to the hurricane of criticisms which sweeps over her school in newspapers, in magazines, in books, and over the air. She is a busy teacher—busy with the three R's, books, music, dance, drama, field trips, camps, and all sorts of novel and creative ventures. She leaves debate and agitation to her organizations and the editors, school administrators, and college professors who also write for state education association journals. She apparently does not consider that American religious, social, and political values need to be debated. Hence, the great cultural cleavages are not reflected in the writings of American teachers.

Here is my picture dredged from state journals:

When she goes to her classrooms, she does not go there to include God in her lesson plans, nor does she intend to exclude Him. She would not shun God. (She may even write a religious verse for a journal.) She will not inject *her* concept of God, nor will she inject *her* spiritual values. She will

seek to develop and cause to emerge many values. They will be those related to the life conditions of the children, and they might be spiritual in nature. She will be concerned in the room with the 3 R's, but she will be eager to teach much more. Her room may be informal, short on drill of the routine type. Many things may be going on in the room. Her concern will be in getting things done. She places a premium on making projects work for the good of pupil, room, school, community, nation, and world. She does not necessarily think that classroom operations are rigidly right and wrong. She adjusts her methods and materials to the task. It will be a pleasant room with an overtone of sympathy and understanding and even play. Standards will be the child's own, adjusted to his measure. For direction the teacher will not search Dewey. She does not look for direction to authorities—in books, colleges, or administrators. She is not particularly bookish, even though she remembers pleasant summers in college; she is a doer. She does not quarrel with her financial conditions in the classrooms, nor does she express dissatisfaction with her culture, her nation, or her form of government. She wants to improve children and community—and she seeks help in her community, particularly among parents. She believes the world is dynamic, changing, growing, and improving. She wants to help. So she seeks not eternal truths but insight, understanding, and information. She thinks skills are developed, information gained, attitudes changed, and values gained through problem solving.

I believe we need to know this professional woman better. I found a wealth of myths about teachers—but little factual evidence. We have been concerned with the issues of today and how much money the teacher earns; maybe we ought to know more about this dynamic professional woman—and man—who has appeared on the American scene.

MEMO FROM A TEACHER

By ELINOR CHURCHILL

ALL TOO FREQUENTLY the question is asked, "What's the matter with the children of today?" And those of us who are in daily contact with them for forty weeks out of the fifty-two in the year can answer in all sincerity, "Not a thing that can't be corrected." Which brings us back to the original question, "What's the matter with the children of today?" Why is the question so frequently asked? Was it propounded as often in 1900, for example? 1915? 1925? Or is it just that there are more mediums for expressing it? Also, more professors, psychologists, psychiatrists, and self-styled "experts" to answer it? More children, too!

As one of the thousands (962,864, according to the United States Office of Education) of nameless and unknown teachers who are pictured either as frustrated old maids or masculine fuddy-duddies, I think it might be salutary to toss a few flying saucers on our behalf. Presumably there are those who picture us pretty much as we are: a few dour ones, a few flighty ones, but chiefly intelligent, conscientious persons interested in producing good citizens for the one world which must inevitably arrive.

EDITOR'S NOTE

There are at least two points of view regarding today's children. Some say they are no better or no worse than children of fifty or five hundred years ago. And there are those who believe they are much worse. The author, who is dean of girls at Silver Lake Regional High School, Kingston, Massachusetts, establishes a point of view with which you may agree or not. If you read this article, you will not be in doubt about the position taken by the writer.

However, regardless of the "picture," the consensus seems to be that the nation's public schools as a whole are turning out an inferior product. Many of us concur as we ponder the condemnation, for it is difficult to believe that such a comparatively small group (not even a million) could be responsible for so much that is obnoxious: delinquency, vandalism, irresponsibility, impertinence, and just plain ignorance among juveniles.

Flying Saucer number one blasting off: The teachers resent the criticism and censure because they resent teaching students who are merely taking a subject in order to "get points." They resent giving the bulk of their time and energy to students who are capable but who resist learning because there is no magic substitute for work—no button to push, no lever to pull, no pill to take.

They resent the charge that the subject matter is not made "interesting." Why should it be for a student who wants only "points"? Is learning a one-way street? It might not be amiss to add that some day the statement *may* be more accurate for the simple reason that no teacher is going to sacrifice himself indefinitely in order that Peter and John, Debby and Susan can get enough "points to pass."

We believe that extracurricular activities should be just that: *extra*. Such activities should be cut to the utmost, if not entirely, if studies are not at a given standard. Curriculums weren't planned for the purpose of giving the students "a lot of useless subjects" to enable them to get a diploma! If the curriculum is too difficult, if the student is incapable or disinterested, let him go to work. And let the teacher teach. We think the state laws requiring children to stay in school should be revised.

We loathe the following remarks: "You're only young once." "They've got to have *some* FUN." "It's too hard." Such remarks are perpetrated by parents and pupils. We think the philosophy behind the words pleasant but stupid. For example, what happens when one is no longer "young" and discovers that "fun" is not enough to succeed in any endeavor? It takes mental and moral stamina to go back to school in order to acquire what should have been learned in public school—money, too.

How many do?

How many should?

Incidentally we are staggered by what is defined as "fun": a car, money, liquor, sex, gambling—a free rein. We have great faith in the Almighty's ability to look out

for fools, drunkards, and little children and we need it. So do they.

We have said that there is nothing the matter which couldn't be corrected and we meant it. There isn't. "Then all this talk is just the usual condemnation which is part of each succeeding generation's heritage?" Partly so. And now we give ourselves a good solid wallop: If one considers the flood of pseudoscientific literature which advocated, nay, *insisted*, upon unrestrained self-expression on the part of Today's Child without benefit of impressionable discipline (hairbrush or isolation—take your pick), it is not so difficult to understand how the Present Generation and Its Parents and Teachers drifted into the current error of its ways.



The Developing Character of the Junior-High-School Pupil

Pupils entering junior high school are beginning not only a new phase of school life, but are also entering a new phase of living. During the three years they spend with us, they change greatly. Their childish curiosity is deepened to question life as they know it and to question life's meaning for them. In their desire to become more independent in thought and action, they constantly seek more information; the innocent "why" of earlier years becomes a searching, probing, and even demanding urge for more facts. During this period pupils begin to enjoy some success in their desire for independence; they grow in their ability to stand on their own feet and to make their own decisions; they increase their skill in assimilating the standards, values, concepts, and ideas of adults; they grow in their skill in making judgments; and they begin to assert themselves with ideas and conclusions that are their very own. At the end of these three years,

the wide-eyed, naïve seventh grader emerges as a young adult.

The kind of adult this youngster is becoming depends, of course, upon the experiences which have taught him, upon the guidance and direction given to his learning activities, and above all, upon his ability to think clearly and critically about himself and his immediate world. Herein lies a two-fold responsibility of teachers of junior high school pupils—especially of teachers of the social studies. This responsibility is to provide experiences which encourage thinking and which in time develop skill in the processes of critical thinking. It is a responsibility which aims to teach concepts, understandings, and values which build foundations for thoughtful action and which lead to conclusions, decisions, judgments, and choices based on carefully selected facts.—DON C. CLINE in the *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

Headaches or Heartaches?

By CHARLES A. TONSOR

AS I WALKED DOWN THE HALL, I heard one teacher confiding to another, "What a bunch of headaches I have this term!" I did not know to whom she was referring, but it was not long before I made the acquaintance of several of them. And then I was forced to ask myself, "Headaches or heartaches?" for there was something about many of them that gripped at the heart-strings.

In every case two sources of information proved very important: an interview with one of the parents; a survey of the permanent record from elementary school to date, together with any anecdotal material in the student's file. Often the home contact was most helpful, not for the information actually given but for the information revealed as to the cultural atmosphere, the value system that dominated the home.

Came a note in an envelope presented by a small rather cheerful youngster. "This boy is an illiterate. Read the enclosed. It is today's test." I did as requested. To me the material resembled manuscript Hindi, interspersed with here and there an English word. I was stumped. I gave it to the young-

ster with "What does this mean?" To my amazement, he read it and it made sense. The record? I.Q. 57! Elementary school record—personality traits good, achievement poor. Not a headache but a heartache. That lad remained in school until eligible to work and never gave any trouble. His mother had done an excellent job in developing a fine personality and we let him record his work in his own way, take his tests, and tell his teachers what he had written. There was a constitutional cause that no human agency could remedy. Yet the individual was a well-adjusted boy.

Another note: "This boy is a nut. All he does is talk calculus. He won't write a composition; just puts mathematical figures on paper. He disrupts the class." A "Wunderkind"? We had had one who learned all secondary mathematics in six months and went to Harvard, where he was in topology in his freshman year! I asked the new lad about his calculus. Yes, he knew it. He wrote equations for me, differential and integral. Some good ones. But when I quizzed him on their derivation or gave him a problem to which to apply one, his mind was blank. His father was an engineer on a tugboat, who had used mathematics in some of his exams. The boy used his knowledge of formulas to gain recognition in the lower school. Then he found a book on calculus in the public library. He memorized the formulas and dazzled his mates—and himself. To his classmates he became "queer." And as his calculus got him nowhere with them or his teachers, he became resentful and finally aggressive. He ended by throwing chairs at fellow students. Headache? No, heartache! He was craving for attention, parental affection, and status. His compensation was calculus. He could act the genius and he had acted so long that

EDITOR'S NOTE

Do disciplinary problems occasionally seem beyond redemption? Sometimes. Especially when the value system of the school clashes with the social status sought by the individual. In such conflict it is necessary to look for the cause. When such conflict occurs, it is wise to remember that personality traits are not bad in themselves. It is the end to which they are directed that counts. This is the point of view established by the author, who is principal emeritus of Grover Cleveland High School in Brooklyn, New York.

he was convinced he was a genius and should not be held to the usual rules. Parents could or would not furnish either the affection or protection he had a right to expect. As for his "calculus," it meant nothing to them. Any wonder his mind went awry?

Six fires occurred in a lavatory and the locker room—always the same laboratory, always the same section of the locker room. The service squad was alerted and instructed. The spots were covered from points of vantage throughout the day. A fire was discovered after a boy had left the lavatory. Headache or heartache? Parents? They had taken the student from a parochial school. He resented the loss of friends and status and determined to get even. Anything to bring trouble to his parents. It was possible to bring boy and parents together. The magistrate was sympathetic and I was big brother. It worked.

At 8:30 one morning a detective, a minister, a boy, and both his parents traipsed into the office. The boy had tried to hang himself with his belt and had been cut down just in time. When I asked what I was expected to do, I was told that I must watch him because he had tried again and had said he would make good at any opportunity offered. I refused to accept the task because it was one for an expert psychiatrist. They replied that a psychiatrist had been consulted but to no effect; the boy would not co-operate. I still refused to accept responsibility but when the minister urged that I talk to the boy, I did, asking what was up. No answer. Why didn't he have some regard for his parents? No answer. Then his mother pleaded, but to no effect. Then I laughed out loud, which startled him. The police officer asked why I guffawed, "Because he's a yellow belly!" I replied, "To do what his parents want requires courage. He hasn't the courage of a louse! He's yellow! He can't take it." By this time the lad was boiling mad. I was wrong, dead wrong. He had courage but

still I dug in, "Boy you're too yellow to trust. You've got to have guts to face the music." "I have," he blurted. "There's only one way to prove that to me. Promise your parents here and go back into the classroom. That will take a lot of nerve, but only if you do it will I believe you. And not for just one day—anybody can do that—but right to the end of the term." By that time he was boiling over: "I'll show you." It worked. Today he is still in the land of the living. Motive? Very religious and stern parents. The desired affection he found in the regard of a girl in the math. class for his ability. He had failed in a demonstration—before his girl—and life wasn't worth living. But he lived!

These things come to us in a large institution day on day. They are the heartaches! We have to make quick decisions. Setting fires is arson and the city marshal must be notified. Shall we allow nature to take its course or plead with the magistrate on the ground that the boy has seen the error of his ways and we will guarantee he is no recidivist? That must be answered quickly, for he is about to be called. We summon all our knowledge in the factors affecting personality, make a rapid assessment, and answer yes. In over a hundred such cases, I have never had a student let me down!

Of course, we are taking a chance, for we can understand adequately a human personality only if we know the interaction of three sets of factors in its formation: the constitutional, the interpersonal, the cultural. And how much do we at school know about each?

Physical tone, structure, general health, intelligence level, are constitutional factors that affect the personality. Unless a handicapped child, for example, has been taught to live beyond the handicap, focus of attention on the handicap may completely ruin the personality. Also, a low I.Q. may result in certain personality maladjustments.

The individual is also directly and powerfully affected by the behavior and atti-

tudes of his fellows and of the adults with whom he comes into intimate contact for long periods of time. This interpersonal factor is exceedingly powerful during the formative years.

The cultural factor refers to the value systems and the rationalizations which people employ to govern their conduct. The cultural factor governs the interaction between members of the family and their school, their church, and other families. Hence those who say the home is the source of delinquency or a very important factor in it are correct. In a middle-class home the young people expect much of their parents and are much hurt by rejection. In a low-economic-group home, children expect little and rejection is not so seriously felt. In a middle-class home the young person does not have to defend his person, because the neighborhood mores don't tolerate aggression. In the former, the individual may have to defend himself against aggression even with the knife. The mores of the family and the neighborhood vitally affect the personality, and when they are at variance with the mores at school, behavior problems (disciplinary) arise. The problem is not one of repression but of harmonizing the two variant culture systems. As long as one system permits one line of conduct, and the other does not, there is bound to be a conflict, for people follow the mores of the groups and the culture in which they function. They respond to the limiting conditions of each situation they confront and not to society or culture in the abstract. This is the origin of many of our "headaches" or "heartaches."

As a school we have the duty of harmonizing the culture system of the individual to that of the school. This is what we mean when we talk of socializing the individual. This socialization is necessary if we are to have a predominant culture to harmonize all the individual cultures found within our borders. Technically, socialization has been defined as the process by which the

individual acquires and makes his own the traits of the dominant groups to which he has been exposed—age level, sex, occupational, class, educational, or school. Note that the traits are acquired by absorption.

When the reconciliation of the several cultural value systems proceeds smoothly, an integrated personality results. When reconciliation is difficult, as when a person is trying to preserve status in a toughie group and in a school activity at the same time, emotional insecurity is likely to develop. Status, the maintenance of one's position in the social group within which one functions, is a powerful lever in conduct and, to maintain status, one must play the required role. A youngster will not study his lessons if he is in a group which considers it to be "chicken" to pass schoolwork. If he also wishes to maintain status in the scholastic group, he must either pursue a Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde split personality or become enmeshed in conflicts. If the groups are widely at variance, to play the role in each is almost impossible. That's why some "disciplinary" problems seem beyond redemption. The school value system cannot be accepted and the individual maintain status in his social group by playing the required role. Sometimes we can bring him to the point where he would like to or seems on the brink of doing so but then he backslides. Sometimes interaction steps in to solve the situation for the individual—the reciprocal interplay of personality between himself and another whom he respects and values. Here is where a teacher is a valuable aid to a confused youngster. The teacher secures his effect not by cajolery or threats but by the pattern he demonstrates in action, thereby presenting a model for the young person to imitate. Yet others may produce an opposite result. Maladjustments may occur because the individual is unable to conform to the expectations, let us say of a perfectionist, or of his family which has higher expectations than he can reach. Suicide may then result.

Whenever conduct becomes unacceptable, we must look first for the cause in the home and in the individuals with whom the young person associates. If, for example, there is in the home a highly permissive mother and an authoritarian father, children are likely to show common characteristics which reflect the condition. Given a mother who is employed daily, a father who is seldom home, a young child cared for by an elder brother or sister, that young child is likely to become fearful, insecure, aggressive. The effect of the home is to generate stresses and strains to which particular personalities are vulnerable. Yet the reaction to these stresses is not automatic. They may affect some members and not others and some families and not others. One youngster in an alcoholic family may go to pieces; another may be completely unaffected. Sublimations affect the situation. We cannot therefore type young people.

Be it remembered, also, that personality traits are not bad in themselves; it is the *end* to which they are *directed* that counts. Aggressiveness is required to meet "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune," to get along in a competitive world. Daydreaming is needed for the production of poetry and new enterprises. Much depends on *identification*, the person like whom another wishes to make himself, whether an Al Capone or a Lou Gehrig—yet both aggressive. Some of our therapy may depend on our ability to provide appropriate persons with whom our young people may identify themselves. Our age is turbulent; it has all sorts of stresses and strains. The mental make-up often can take just so much and no more. We must teach how to handle failure; otherwise a young person will crack up because of his inability to find a solution for his problem.

Those who should know point to the rapid rise of schizophrenia in our modern society. This is a mental disturbance common among individuals who are unable to

reconcile their conflicts and who therefore find recourse in a flight from reality. They find a dream world in which they can function. The layman can help here by providing controlled situations which continually bring up the real world, the world of things as they are. *Situations* are the essence of the therapy, not *talks* about the situation in which the young person is.

The next most serious disturbance is paranoia. This is manifest in one who has developed a pattern of assault and destruction. He is at war with the world, does not recognize kindness, and replies violently to imagined insults and wrongs. There is little that the lay person can do with this individual. The only hope is exclusion—but this is often not possible and what happens is that the normal youngster when attacked by such a deviate "knocks the daylight" out of him, only making his affliction more confirmed. Expert treatment must be secured.

The individual most often referred to is the psychotic. By definition, there has been severe injury to the psyche and there is little that can be done. He is the recidivist in crime—the individual who repeats again and again and seems beyond the reach of therapy. Here too a specialist is required. In spite of the apparent lack of emotion and will, there is deep-seated disorder. Hypnoanalysis and narcoanalysis (injection of drugs that lead to spill outs) show that much of the later conduct disorders can be referred to childhood conflicts, inadequacy, inferiority, and that these subconscious or unconscious elements motivate and direct.

Such are our headaches and heartaches. A far cry from "discipline" in the older sense—the punishment to suit the crime. For normal deviates, yes; for headaches and heartaches, no. Before taking any action, I need to make a dynamic analysis of the deviate in the light of the history as shown in our school records. That is the starting point. It may lead to solution or, after unsuccessful attempts, to refusal.

OPERATION SALVAGE—

F.T.A. Tutors

By LOUISE EDNA GOEDEN

BARBARA WAS A RECENT TRANSFER to Washington High School, Milwaukee. Her background in English was completely different from that of most students in this large senior high school. Emphasis in her previous classes had been on literature, not grammar. Her first theme revealed an inability to write a complete sentence or to punctuate properly.

What Barbara needed was a quick course in grammar fundamentals. Her English teacher, with 135 pupils to instruct daily, was unable to supply such intensive help. Fortunately for Barbara, Washington High has a plan for helping just such students.

"I'll get an F.T.A. tutor for you," her teacher said.

She did, and the result was that at the semester's close Barbara could write clear sentences and was able to punctuate them. She passed on to senior English with the rest of the class.

EDITOR'S NOTE

This article makes sense. Members of the Future Teachers of America chapter at one high school organized to give private tutoring to schoolmates who needed it, to provide emergency substitute teaching in the school's classes, and to take field trips intended to give them greater understanding of the teaching profession. These activities appear to be an improvement over F.T.A. state conventions, that develop politicking more than anything else. The author is on the staff of Washington High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

This happy incident illustrates one type of work which the Future Teachers of America are doing at Washington High.

Principal Arlie Schardt in 1953 recognized the ability of many of the school's good students to help those who for one reason or another were behind in their work or needed to be absent from school. Further, he wanted to give good students an opportunity to see the satisfactions that lie in teaching. The Future Teachers of America—a national organization—seemed to provide a good means to achieve his purpose.

The years since have justified his original hope. Each semester some sixty-five of the school's brightest juniors and seniors (85 average or better) enroll in the local unit. Their activities consist of private tutoring, such as Barbara received; emergency substitute teaching in the school's classes; and field trips related to the teaching profession.

In one semester, F.T.A. members spent over 1,625 hours tutoring and taking over eighty class periods. They visited an elementary school, a state school for the visually handicapped, a state college training school. They held seven meetings, in which they learned such things as problems of the new teacher, methods of reading improvement, rewards of teaching. In other words, they received a clear picture of what teaching is like. Naturally, Washington High hopes that this will encourage those students to make teaching their careers.

Running an F.T.A. program in a school of some 2,300 pupils requires considerable organization. This is the responsibility of two faculty members, who have the pro-

gram as their extracurricular activity. The control point of the club is the assignment chart. On this are listed the name of each member, his semester in school, his major and minor subject specialties, his available free periods. There is a space for entry of assignments. The advisers also have a 3 by 5 card file containing each member's class schedule for ready reference. With these are filed the records of dates, type and quality of service rendered, together with remarks from the classroom teacher who used the F.T.A.'s service.

When a teacher feels a pupil in her class requires tutoring beyond what she is able to provide in the time she has available, she submits a request in writing to the F.T.A. director. She gives the facts in the case, and when a tutor has been assigned she consults with him at first and periodically thereafter. In other words, the classroom teacher is still the accountable person. In Barbara's case, for instance, the classroom teacher arranged for basic grammar books to be used, went over Barbara's weaknesses with the tutor, showed her Barbara's themes and test papers every couple of weeks, and suggested possible fields for study.

Another teacher may ask for a tutor to help a boy convalescing at home after surgery. In one case on record at Washington High, such a boy was visited regularly for three weeks and was successfully tutored in three subjects. A school athlete who had broken his leg in football passed all his subjects, although he was absent from school for four weeks. F.T.A.'s got all his assignments, visited him first in the hospital and later at home to tutor him in his subjects.

Sometimes immigrant pupils face a language barrier. Hilda, a German girl, fell so far behind in her work for this reason that she was on the verge of a nervous breakdown. An F.T.A. took over for thirty tutoring periods—and Hilda was able to be graduated. Then there was the twenty-year-old boy, totally blind in one eye and par-

tially blind in the other. Daily, in the library conference room, he was tutored in history and mathematics. Student tutors administered and assisted in grading the specially drawn-up tests, too.

These are, perhaps, some of the more unusual cases. However, week in and week out the F.T.A.'s can be seen coming to school long before the attendance is taken, using their study periods, even part of their lunch periods, working after school, to help pupils who are behind in their work or unable to grasp it. Like mother hens, they may be seen clucking over as many as four or six students they have assembled to learn or review fundamentals in algebra, English, Latin, or some other subject.

School authorities also have the comfortable knowledge that these F.T.A.'s are available in case a class must suddenly be taken over. Teachers do become ill during the day! At these times, the F.T.A. will step in, follow the assignment the teacher has made, actually carry on the instruction. Occasionally, too, the student will be given the privilege of teaching a class as in-service training.

Though personal satisfaction of the tutors is great, there is also an apple-for-the-teacher award. At the end of each semester, total hours of tutoring and classroom teaching are computed. Students with twenty-five hours of work are awarded a "red apple," a red gloss enamel face, outlined with gold and inset with the gold F.T.A. letters. For the two top graduating "teachers," there is the "golden apple," similar in design to the red apple, except that gold enamel is substituted for red.

While these awards are eagerly sought and much prized, they are merely symbols of what the Washington High Future Teachers have accomplished. In one six-week mark period over 100 students who might otherwise have failed a subject passed it. Twenty who might have failed at the end of the semester passed. Classroom teachers gave full credit to the F.T.A.

To spread the doctrine of the F.T.A., Washington High School, along with seven other Milwaukee schools, has formed an interhigh F.T.A. council. Two representatives from each school meet monthly at various schools, in rotation. Also present are representatives (students and teachers) who have not yet organized local F.T.A. units. The council discusses the problems facing F.T.A. groups in the schools and gives methods for successfully handling teaching and tutoring assignments. In addition, this interhigh council assumed the responsibility for organizing the state convention of

the Future Teachers of America, which was held in Milwaukee in October. The council has a good background for this work, since a "clearing house" conference on F.T.A. matters, held at Washington High during the state teachers' convention in November, 1955, attracted over 300 high-school students.

Principal Schardt is a firm believer that such F.T.A. activities promote the satisfactions which come in teaching. "Such a background," he declares, "may spur the students' decision to enter one of the many teaching fields where their talents are so greatly needed."



Why Study Mathematics?

You are interested in why we teach mathematics in our schools. Probably you are also interested in what mathematics your son or your daughter will need to take in high school.

First let us say that a certain amount of mathematics is basic for everyone. Call that mathematics the mathematics used in the home. Your son will need enough mathematics to handle his money wisely, to understand installment buying, to check his bank account, to finance a home, to pay interest on a mortgage, to make an investment, or to pay the taxes. Your daughter will need mathematics when she manages the food budget, plans the family wardrobe, counts the calories in the daily menu, or cuts the proportions in a recipe. Both will want to understand the various forms of insurance: life, health, accident, unemployment, and automobile. Some mathematics is needed to understand state and federal taxation. To participate intelligently in church budgets, community chest drives, and the voting of measures involving the spending of public funds, the average citizen needs some mathematics.

Mathematics needed in the home is not limited to one's personal affairs. For reading newspapers, increasing use of such words as *ratio*, *unit*, *average*

percentage, *variable*, *constant*, *dimension*, *formula*, and the like are symptoms of a long-time trend. Graphs are an important part of our newspapers and magazines. Tables of statistics on employment, overtime schedules, opinion polls, rainfall measurements, bank rates, speed limits, freight rates, stock and bond summaries, national debts, taxes, baseball standings, are all part of our everyday reading.

In addition to the mathematics needed in the home, each vocation has its special requirements. Farmers, for instance, cannot understand government bulletins written for them unless they can read graphs and understand the meaning of such mathematical ideas as parity and indexes. . . .

The time to acquire essential mathematical understandings is in high school. Many people discover only after they have finished high school that they have not taken enough math. Make-up courses in college, correspondence courses, and high school are time consuming and costly. Unless the pupil takes the suitable courses in high school and junior high school, he may be discouraged from entering an interesting and profitable career.—MILDRED FLANAGAN in the *Mathematics Teacher*.

Events & Opinion

TEACHER RECRUITMENT: A ten-year recruiting program to provide a sufficient number of qualified teachers in the New Jersey public school system has been called markedly successful. Dr. Frederick M. Raubinger, State Commissioner of Education, has reported that the state's teacher staff has increased more than 40 per cent as a result of the drive. And the vast majority of the newer recruits are on the whole better qualified than those previously hired.

During the campaign to augment the teacher staff, a survey of high-school seniors was conducted, and it disclosed that more of these pupils wished to enter the teaching profession than any other occupation. Perhaps this fact may account for a 38 per cent increase in freshman enrollment in the six New Jersey teachers colleges over that of last fall.

Dr. Raubinger attributed the success in obtaining teachers to the following factors:

(1) Local, county, and state educational officials co-operated in inducing more high-school graduates to enter teachers colleges.

(2) A \$15,000,000 expansion program in the six state colleges is nearing completion and will permit a further rise of up to 5,500 in annual enrollment.

(3) A state-wide minimum salary scale for teachers has been initiated. A substantially improved retirement system integrated with Social Security also has been established.

(4) An up-grading of teachers has been accelerated through the addition of special professional courses at the various New Jersey colleges and an expansion of off-campus extension courses.

(5) Additional scholarships have been provided by teachers colleges. The state board of education has approved regulations simplifying transfers of students from liberal arts to teachers colleges. Several

private liberal arts colleges within the state also have initiated teacher-preparatory curriculums.

JAPAN HAS ITS TROUBLES, TOO:

Juvenile delinquency in Japan, strictly a postwar phenomenon, became a matter of widespread comment with the success of the United States film, *The Blackboard Jungle*, even though protests from numerous parent and teacher groups banned the picture in some localities. Youth gangs and juvenile hoodlums have accounted for a 50 per cent increase in crime in the first six months of this year over the corresponding period of the previous year.

We take no great comfort in noting that our country is not alone with this vast and disturbing problem. Rather, the solution invites an international approach, for the source which creates the criminal behavior of the youth is still the same—salacious literature, narcotics, low-rate motion pictures, and loose parental control among others. Speaking of parental control, we remember when youthful obedience was one of the most cherished traditions of the Japanese people.

HOW TO STUDY: We recently received from Daniel W. Alvino a very fine brochure on "How to Study." The basic purpose of this pamphlet, which he prepared while he was principal of the Biddeford High School in Biddeford, Maine, is to induce the faculty to teach students the why, how, when, and where of studying. We are quite sure that Mr. Alvino will be glad to send copies of this study guide to those who are interested. He is now superintendent-principal of the Frontier Regional School, Deerfield, Massachusetts.

JOSEPH GREEN

A Seminar for Superior Students

By JACKIE MALLIS

AN EVER PRESENT CHALLENGE to the serious teacher is the superior students in any class. Teachers of required courses such as social studies and English, particularly on the high-school level, tend to have an especially difficult problem finding ways to keep these students profitably busy while devoting most of the class time to average and below-average students who constitute the majority of rather large classes. Too often enrichment assignments for superior students result in mere busywork, which is not enriching at all but simply time consuming, and the pupils, recognizing such work for what it is, give it only perfunctory attention, actually gaining little from it except another 1 or 2 to add to their already easily won string of 1's and 2's.

Faced with a number of such students in each of three classes, I realized I had to do something uniquely inspiring to stimulate them to maximum achievement. The answer was a seminar. Although designed for sophomores in an English class, it could be equally successful for freshmen, juniors, or seniors in English or social studies.

EDITOR'S NOTE

No question about it, high schools are being reminded daily of their responsibility for developing their talented students to a higher degree of competency. The author of this article, who is on the staff of the Catalina High School, Tucson, describes a technique used in her seminar for superior students. One of the important purposes of the seminar was to develop self-direction on the part of students in the investigation and study of a problem or project. Can superior students be challenged to do more resourceful work? Mrs. Mallis says "yes."

Deep thought preceded the actual planning and preparation of the seminar. Before I could settle to typewriter and ditto stencil, I had to answer several questions: What theme would offer the right scope for individual interest and promote the best growth? What materials were available? What procedure would guarantee the greatest measure of initiative and self-reliance? How could I encourage leadership qualities?

Since most of the work for the seminar would have to be done in the library without my direct supervision, I had to be certain the individuals chosen were as competent as their discussion and composition, their speed in doing assignments, and their eagerness to tackle homework for honor grades made them seem. I administered a diagnostic test of English fundamentals, then checked Iowa Reading Test scores, I.Q. (Otis) scores and percentile ranks for those whose diagnostic scores suggested considerable ability. It was no surprise that these individuals had scored twelfth grade and above on the reading test in the spring of their ninth year and that they had I.Q.'s ranging from 112 to 135.

On the first Monday of the new six-week period, I sent my classes to the library but kept the seminar pupils in the classroom, telling them they had been chosen for an experiment. Since none could define "seminar," I explained the term, its usual reference to a college group, and my reasons for inviting them to share this experiment. "High mental ability" (instead of specific I.Q. ratings) was mentioned, and definite grade scores in reading were named (though not in personal terms). I distributed and discussed the dittoed assignment sheet included below. The very next day the seminar students signed out for the library and

every day thereafter until the last week of the marking period when they had to be in class to present their final exam—No. 6 on the sheet—and to listen to the presentations of others in the seminar.

Seminar theme: "Problems of Our Society"

Purposes: To develop self-direction in investigating a problem; to learn to use a variety of sources in finding out about the problem; to learn to communicate effectively with others about the problem; to develop specialized skills and techniques in analyzing the problem: note taking, outlining, interviewing, reference and research ability; to learn to work independently and co-operatively and to assume responsibility for accomplishing the maximum results in each period.

Problems to consider: Crime (juvenile delinquency), war (relations with other countries), Indians, prejudice, education, immigration, religious differences, threats to freedom, leadership (of a powerful nation), the handicapped, poverty, marriage and/or divorce—or another problem that affects large numbers of people.

Materials to use (including those from our school library, the city library, and the university library): (1) encyclopedias, "The World Almanac," other reference books, fiction and nonfiction books, short stories, poems, plays, magazine stories and articles (see "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature"), newspaper articles; (2) radio or TV programs or movies; (3) interviews with appropriate persons.

Procedure:

(1) Choose a problem and sign out for library. Skim an encyclopedia article on the subject to see major phases of problem. Then compile a working bibliography (author, title, call number or magazine, date, page) of all available material suited to your interest in the problem. Submit to the teacher with your working bibliography a plan for six weeks' work set up so that a

specific phase of the problem is indicated for each week.

(2) When your plan sheet and bibliography have been approved, start reading and taking notes. At the end of each week (on Friday or the following Monday) submit a weekly job sheet like the sample below:

WEEKLY JOB SHEET for

(date)

This week I did the following:

Monday: Went to library to find short story, "Whose Children Are These?" by D. J. Petersham. Used "Readers' Guide" to locate magazine, then had library clerk get magazine for me. Read and took notes on story.

Tuesday: Outlined ideas for a story suggested by a sentence in story read Monday and wrote rough draft.

Wednesday: Revised my story.

Thursday: Started reading book, *Let's Mend Our Own Fences*, by Bishop Robert Kelley, pages 1-74.

Friday: Worked on water-color illustration for my story and prepared cover for it. Also read more of book started yesterday, about thirty-four pages.

Evaluation of week's work: My greatest gain this week, I think, was the contact with Bishop Kelley's book. I have never read such an inspiring and provocative book. For the first time I was led to think about the many children we cheat of their rights and opportunities by letting them become delinquents.

Homework: 2½ hours Friday evening finishing the story I wrote and reading another fifty pages in Bishop Kelley's book.

Vocabulary learned:

"homogeneous"—adj. (hōmôjē' nē ūs)
—of the same kind or nature. "A more or less homogeneous group

of boys in each craft class." Kelley, p. 71.

"penchant"—n. (pě'n'chănt)—strong leaning or attraction. "She had a penchant for evil." Petersham, p. 64.

(signature)

(3) Hand in each week at least one well-organized theme on your problem, choosing a different phase for each theme.

(4) Hand in as much creative work as you have time for: an original play, a script of a story, an original short story, a series of appropriate poems, a collection of poems or other works related to the topic with critical or comparative comment, drawings related to the problem, charts, graphs, maps, cartoons, and so on.

(5) Report to the group now and then (as opportunity arises) on findings of special note or on difficulties encountered.

(6) Prepare alone or with others working on the same or a similar problem a *program* that will use one entire class period. Suggested activities: panel, debate, recordings, movies, dramatic presentations, speeches, monologues.

(7) Write a thoughtful *evaluation theme* of the seminar and of your part in it, noting any special gains in your general background, in your work habits and research skills, in doing new things, in important attitudes you have developed, in language fluency, and so on.

NOTE: For this work you will need an 8½ by 11 spiral notebook for all written assignments except job sheets, pen, and an average of 2 to remain with the seminar.

Class Presentations

Except for part of a period here and there (no more than four times altogether), I did not meet with them as a group, nor did I give more than occasional assistance with individual problems of locating references or developing theme material. Such help had to be squeezed into the class routine,

but on the whole it seemed to be all that these superior students needed to keep them from bogging down.

The full-period presentations proved most interesting and instructive, not only to the classes but to the other members of each seminar. In one group four girls had chosen the same subject: juvenile delinquency. Since each had covered a different aspect, they decided to join forces in a panel. One girl studying problems of immigrants read a story to the class which seemed to her to typify the general theme of her research. A boy lectured to his class on the economics of war, using blackboard charts and graphs to illustrate his points. A boy and a girl who had pursued different lines of prejudice showed movies chosen after careful study of catalogues and previews at the University of Arizona Visual Aids Bureau. The movies were supplemented by introductory and concluding speeches. Two girls investigating the plight of the handicapped brought directors of local institutions for the handicapped to serve as experts in a question period.

Of all the presentations, the most impressive by far was a panel by community resource persons (including the mayor, a social-service worker, a parole officer, and a minister) on juvenile delinquency. The painstakingly detailed planning by the girl responsible for gathering these people together brought to light unsuspected talent for organization, and her chairmanship of the panel revealed a rare maturity of charm, wit, and diplomacy which ordinary classroom activities had failed to accomplish.

Of the creative work submitted, a series of poems depicting the changes in religion from pagan worship to Christianity and the one-god religions of the East unearthed genuine creative writing talent.

Evaluations

Typical comments in the final evaluation themes indicate to what extent the seminar had exceeded my hopes and aims:

"For the first time in my life I learned to depend on myself to figure out how to go ahead; before, I kept plaguing the teacher for directions."

"At first I thought, 'So this is the punishment for being able to read well, having all this extra work to do,' but soon I found myself being able to take part in discussions with my mother's university friends and actually being asked questions about the stuff I was reading on the Negro."

"I used to be embarrassed to be what is called 'a brain.' No one seemed to appreciate my ready answers in class or my good grades. In fact, they resented them. So I learned to 'get by' with the others. When the seminar began, I was thrilled and excited by the challenge, but suspicious and uncertain. Then I found I really had to work to satisfy the teacher's high standards. It was fun and I've discovered that there is a satisfaction in doing something well that outweighs ridicule. I'm proud now of my grades, for if I hadn't had the ability, I wouldn't have been asked to join the seminar."

The only failures in the group of twelve participating in the seminar were those with the highest I.Q.'s—128 and 135 respectively. This was the rather illuminating evaluation by one: "For nine years I have been gettings 1's because I was a good little girl and smiled sweetly. It began in first grade and has happened all through parochial and public school. I always finished my work in the first ten or fifteen minutes of classtime and had the rest of the time to play. It got easier and easier to play first and then make up excuses if I neglected to do the assignment. Today my past caught up with me. For the first time in my life I have a 5 instead of a 1. My 'little girl act' didn't work. It's a funny feeling to be flunked. I couldn't hand in my notebook because I went out with S— last night when I should have been writing themes to make up for the days I 'happened' to be absent. I couldn't do the final because I realized I couldn't bluff my way through a 53-minute class period for which I had made little preparation."

Probably the most representative evaluation was that made by the writer of the poems on religion, who said, in a report for *Student Life*: "None of the students who

took part in the seminars will ever forget them. It was perhaps the hardest thing they had ever attempted in all their ten previous years of schooling, but it was without a doubt most satisfying. . . .

"In the six weeks the students felt they had made several important gains. Their knowledge of the world had broadened, not only as they pursued their own course of study but as they listened to the programs given by the others. Research materials and methods were no longer a mystery. Vocabularies had grown. Perhaps, most important, their ability to plan and execute a detailed study had been proved. They were no longer children awed by too big an assignment, but capable young people ready to tackle any subject, step by step, with a purpose, a plan, and a progressive procedure."

Considering all factors, I am convinced that the seminar approach to gifted students is the most feasible method of spurring such youngsters to developing their greatest potential on their own.

As for the attitude of those students not selected for the seminar, I found only overwhelming relief at not having "all that extra work" to do. Shy, inarticulate pupils relaxed once they were away from the critical scrutiny of their superiors, volunteered answers, asked questions when a point was not clear, and really settled down to learn. The smaller numbers in each class enabled me to concentrate on the specific bugaboos of each student, and group work produced more constructive results.

As a teacher, I learned new approaches to both the slow learners and the superior students that I have since adapted for other classes. As for the seminar plan, I am now developing a new one—"America, a Land of Progress"—for my American literature classes, and I am tremendously pleased with the eager interest and enthusiastic response of those who elected the seminar over two much easier plans under which the course is currently operating.

RESEARCH REPORTS:

Aid to Teaching Social Studies

By

JOSEPH E. WALKER

IN THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES there has always been a widespread recognition of the necessity for instruction in the use of certain basic skills. Among these are: making use of sources of information, finding material in the library, taking notes from reading, organizing facts, crediting sources, and expressing oneself reasonably well in both written and oral form. The pupil load of the average history teacher has all too often relegated the teaching of these skills to chance and hope. Group assignments develop in most students no talent except that of a scribe. Attention to all of these skills on an individual basis by the teacher appears an intolerable burden of numbers.

For several years I used the research report to introduce my tenth graders to the tools of our trade. The research report, of course, is not new or original; but I made some adaptations to fit it to the enrollment situation. We devoted eight to ten days to

each of three reports during the year. One day was used for instruction and demonstration of the assignment, three days were spent in the library, one day was devoted to supervised preparation in the classroom, and three or four days were given to oral presentation of the reports to the class. This work also represented the home assignment for these days.

A long list of topics was prepared, based on the historical period covered during the previous term. Students were privileged to suggest other pertinent topics in which they were interested. But each member of the class indicated a different subject. Instructions were that material was to be collected and organized, an outline and a bibliography handed to the teacher, and a report of five to ten minutes' duration prepared and presented to the class.

Each student received a detailed, written analysis at the conclusion of his report. This was designed to be both commendatory and critical of his outline, bibliography, sources, material, coverage, and oral communication. The fact that the student prepared three such reports during the year gave him a chance to correct his errors and weaknesses. No student was embarrassed by a critique before the class. However, many came to the teacher voluntarily afterward to discuss the comments. There was advantage in his receiving the instructor's opinion while the performance was still fresh in his mind.

All students were instructed to be prepared on the first day reports were to be given to the class, but I gave them a chance to volunteer for the day. The result seemed

EDITOR'S NOTE

A special feature of the teaching technique described in this article is the use of the spoken rather than the written report of fact finding or research required of tenth-grade students in the classes which the author formerly taught at Bradford (Pennsylvania) High School. Use of the library and practice in oral communication are two of the skills emphasized. Mr. Walker recently became associate professor of history and social studies at Millersville State Teachers College, Pennsylvania.

to be a more relaxed atmosphere, with less compulsion. Often the introvert would offer himself early to avoid the tension of a long wait. If volunteers did not materialize in sufficient numbers, I called names to keep things moving, but this was seldom necessary once a start had been made.

Some of my colleagues asked why I did not require a written report. For several years I did. I found the volume of the writing was so great that it was several weeks before I could return the work to the authors. By then the edge of interest was blunted and the suggestions for improvement had little meaning. I felt that I could judge results from the oral account with the exception of correctness in writing. I gave opportunity for development along this line in other kinds of assignments all through the year.

Another objection I sometimes heard was, "I could not take that much time and still cover the material in the course of study."

Our report periods were not courses apart from the study of world history. We concentrated our attention on research for a few days. The subject matter considered was always an extension of that in the textbook. It therefore served to enrich the student's historical experience because each student benefited from hearing the results of the research of everyone. Frequently other members of the section questioned the speaker about some statement he made, and a discussion resulted.

Our reports gave an opportunity to correlate our work with that of other departments in the school. The English teachers gave help in the preparation of an outline and a bibliography. The departments of science, health, mathematics, and foreign languages readily supplied material and advice when the topic was related to one of those fields.

Most important of all was the cooperation of the librarian. The days spent in the library were scheduled weeks in advance. The librarian was furnished a list of the topics in time to check the supply of material and to borrow additional books if necessary. Then on the days spent in the library the librarian worked with the classes in finding material and instructing students on efficient use of the facilities.

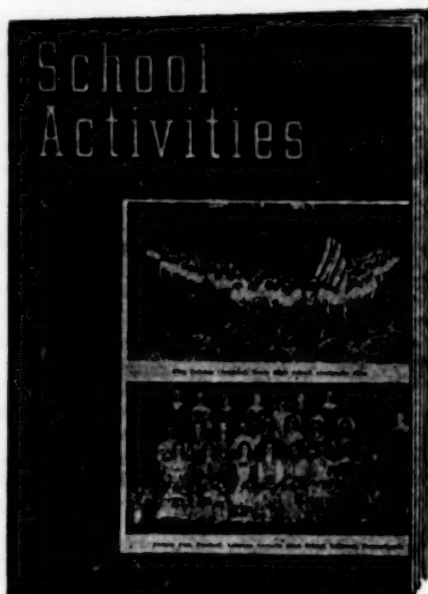
To the history teacher this program has the great advantage that the criticism sheets must be prepared in large part at the time the oral report is presented to the class. Soon after the last report is given, the student may have the comments on his work. And the teacher is not faced with a mountain of reports at the time he is introducing the next unit of work.

Typical of the reaction of many students was the statement made by a boy during his freshman year at a large university; "I am thankful for my world history course in high school. I was the only one in my college section who knew how to prepare a bibliography."



The Meaning of Democracy. The schoolbook definition of democracy takes little account of the ideas that underlie the whole democratic system—ideas about the nature and destiny of man, attitudes toward people, our sense of obligation to our fellows, and the ways in which we work with them. Unless we remember this part of our tradition we are likely to underestimate greatly the strength of our institutions and the sources of their strength. The democratic idea has something to do with a concept of the infinite worth of the individual human being, and the respect we owe each individual person. This is a poetic or religious concept of man. Democracy is thus first of all a moral system.—E. E. SCHATTSCHEIDER in *Teachers College Record*.

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Book Reviews



FORREST IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

Public Schools in Our Democracy by LAWRENCE A. CREMIN and MERLE L. BORROWMAN. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956. 226 pages, \$2.64.

The authors of this interesting account of American education in its social setting have addressed themselves to four major facets of the educational scene. In asking the question, "Who has a stake in public education?" they provide an adequate and illuminating status account of the school population, the teaching staff, and the individuals and groups comprising the interested public. A second facet of the report, dealing with the origins and aspirations of public education, lays marked emphasis on the relation of school expansion to changing cultural needs in this country. The most crucial and perhaps most difficult accomplishment of the book attempts to define the proper task of education. Finally, in a section bearing the title of the entire book, the authors point up five current problems facing the schools: expanded enrollments, teacher shortages, program development, academic freedom, and the provocative issue of keeping the public schools "public."

Following a persistent thesis that public schools are cultural agencies set up to serve the needs of society, the book is consistent in treating all the educational issues with a keen sensitivity to their public character. In this respect the book points unmistakably to the dilemma facing the schools when opinion-forming groups offer conflicting values for educational emphasis.

The reader might experience some difficulty in determining for whom the book is written. There is much in the book to suggest that the authors have in mind primarily the lay citizenry to whose interest in education they seem so cognizant. This intention of the book seems reflected when the authors describe certain aspects of the book as "designed to help you become a school-conscious citizen—a citizen who knows his strengths and weaknesses, who knows how to make judgments about the schools, and who knows how to use his knowledge to improve the schools." On the other hand, the book suggests itself as a text for a course, "An Introduction to Teaching." In this respect, there are many fine suggestions at the close of each chapter in a section titled, "Some Things to Think About and to Do."

One is inclined to suggest a third possible use of a book of this nature—namely, as a fine resource

in general education courses that deal at some point with the problem area of "public education." Many fine courses of this nature are being developed in secondary and higher education. This book, with its fairness and honest reporting of school conditions, should offer sound insights to students studying educational issues as a part of their general education and not necessarily as professional preparation.

VICTOR B. LAWHEAD

Evolution, Genetics, and Man by THEODOSIUS G. DOBZHANSKY. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955. 398 pages, \$5.50.

Professor Dobzhansky presents here some exciting ideas, together with a review of recent thought in genetics and evolution. In the early part of the book are three chapters that lucidly present a summary of genetics. The relationships between genetic phenomena and evolution are well put forth.

Many people will want to read this book. It is a clear, up-to-date presentation of the main facts and theories in the fields of genetics and evolution. Dobzhansky is a top-notch authority in this area of biology, particularly in genetics, but he presents other points of view besides his own and indicates evidence underlying various viewpoints. This is not a narrow, technical book but an intellectually exciting one that is continuously concerned with the question, "What has this to do with man?"—the question teachers frequently face in the colloquial form, "So what?"

A wide variety of questions is considered. One can find a discussion of the following (just as a sample): Is evolution occurring today? Can we see it? How has the study of genetics and evolution influenced thinking about ethics? Is science ethical or unethical? What can genetics tell us about equality and democracy? What causes differences between human races? What is a race, anyway? What are some differences between man and any of the other animals? How is the development of bacterial resistance to antibiotics explained? And insects' resistance to insecticides? Some of these questions one might expect to find discussed in a book on evolution and genetics, but many important topics are included that biologists often ignore.

Dobzhansky's treatment is for the most part concise and direct. He has appended to each chapter

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some "Suggestions for Further Reading." He briefly comments on these suggestions, and difficult works are pointed out and separated from more readable items. In general the clear and exceedingly brief annotations inform the reader about strengths, weaknesses, viewpoints, or range of the works listed.

JAMES SILVAN

Functional Mathematics, Grades 8 and 9, by W. A. GAGER, D. H. JOHNSON, M. H. MAHOOD, CARL SHUSTER, RICHARD MADDEN, and F. W. KOKOMOOR. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1955. Grade 8, 373 pages, \$2.24; Grade 9, 434 pages, \$3.08.

The physical make-up of these books attracts the eye, a feature particularly essential to junior-high-school pupils. The books use to good advantage drawings, examples worked out in detail, questions for discussion, and enrichment material.

Throughout this series the authors have done a good job of tying up each new principle, when first presented, with others upon which it depends. The authors say: "The purpose of this procedure is to enrich the principles which have been previously used and to give the student a correct and thorough understanding of the mean-

ing of the new one being introduced." In both of these books the authors have done a good job of presenting meaningful material to the student, realizing that "he learns only those things which have meaning for him and must therefore be made to understand that what he is studying will satisfy his present needs and enable him to meet his future needs."

Spiral learning has been provided for by bringing each new idea to the attention of the student time and time again, leaving little opportunity to forget. These concepts are repeated not only throughout any one book, but are presented at spaced intervals throughout the series.

The units in the books are well set up with good introductions, including historically significant data. The concluding pages of each unit consist of a "Testing Your Mastery" exercise with important terms and phrases in boldface type. Spaced well throughout the books are tests on the fundamentals of arithmetic so essential to functional mathematics courses. One particularly strong feature of these texts is the emphasis on approximate computation. This important device in our modern age is treated simply and step by step, so that it is not difficult for junior-high-school pupils to comprehend.

WERNER E. BRAND

Shop Mathematics by CLAUDE E. STOUT.

New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1955. 282 pages, \$3.70.

In this book the author presents the fundamentals of mathematics in such a way as to help the student become an intelligent worker in industry. The book is for the person who desires to understand the mathematical principles underlying the work of the machinist, patternmaker, tool-and die-maker, or other craftsman. It is indeed to assist the worker to raise himself above the category of a machine tender and provide him with the "why" as well as the "how."

The book is divided into four parts. The first covers such phases as whole numbers, fractions, formulas, decimals, per cent, ratio and proportion, together with a number of applications to involute gears, and cutting speeds and feeds. Part 2 includes a study of negative numbers, arithmetic of letters, powers and roots, simple equations, and quadratics, with applications to electricity. In Part 3 the author takes up geometry and trigonometry as well as some special applications. Finally, Part 4 presents logarithms, and the slide rule with various ramifications and uses. It also includes some more advanced phases of trigonometry.

The material is arranged so that it leads the student from the simple to the more complicated phases of mathematics. It stresses accuracy and the checking of solutions. It emphasizes the practical application of principles to the everyday problems of the workman. The problems and illustrations are garnered from industry or the shop and are clear and understandable. They give the student an opportunity to apply theory to practical problems and stimulate his thinking and ingenuity in their solutions. Progression through the text is rather rapid and will tend to keep student interest high.

Other features of the book include an excellent table of contents, a table of five-place natural trigonometric functions for every minute of every degree from 0° to 90° , and an index. It is well illustrated and the typography is clear and easily read.

KENNETH L. BING

New Trails in Reading by CAROL HOVIOUS.

Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1956. 472 pages, \$3.20.

New Trails in Reading is an attractive reading textbook for use of high-school students. Even though the book is set up with direct instructions to the student, only a very intelligent, highly motivated student who is already a good reader would profit from using it without teacher guidance. The discovery tests are not inclusive enough for finding out the specific difficulties a poor reader may have. For example, many poor readers

need much help in discovering the meaning, the pronunciation, or both, of unfamiliar words. The material in these areas is inadequate for diagnostic purposes.

The material on motivation of the pupils is excellent. Many average readers who have not developed curiosity toward reading may be helped by the searching questions. High-school students need to learn that having a real purpose for reading is a crucial factor in improving reading comprehension and retention. The student who plans to go to college as well as the terminal student should profit greatly from the exercises to develop skill in reading for main ideas and details. Too often a college preparatory student is so busy getting ready to enter college that he fails to develop the reading skill necessary for succeeding after he enters.

Probably one of the most neglected areas of reading skill is that of helping a student develop a personal reaction to what he reads. Part Five, "Your Mental Switchboard," has some noteworthy exercises designed to help the student associate what he reads with his own experiences and relate what he reads to the world around him.

The selections included for study and analysis are well chosen, both for interest and variety. Lively discussions should develop from use of most of the suggested questions. The material chosen to help a student increase his rate of reading, while helpful, would be of more value if help were also given in developing skill in phrasing. Many slow readers are word-by-word readers and therefore are severely handicapped in any attempt to become more efficient readers. This is a fairly serious omission.

Finally, there is an excellent section devoted to word study. Specific meanings and pronunciations for words in particular sections are used effectively to develop generalizations about suffixes, prefixes, and compound words. Too often the high-school student does not learn these generalizations and therefore becomes bogged down with the tremendous load of words he meets and the wide reading he is expected to do.

DORIS E. NASON

Audio-Visual Procedures in Teaching by

LESTER B. SANDS. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1956. 670 pages, \$6.00.

Professor Sands, of the University of California, has here provided a complete manual for the use of audio-visual materials in education. The book is organized into thirty-one chapters for studying the various types of audio-visual procedures and equipment. It is practical, understandable, and stimulating.

It gets down to business from the very first page. With specific examples, it points out how efficient

and effective teaching can be served by modern devices and materials. Meaningful illustrations help to vitalize the text and provide ideas which may be adapted to local teaching-learning situations. There are laboratory exercises which will add to the student's skill and confidence in operating apparatus. There are excellent lists of professional periodicals, associations, selected references, and sources of materials and equipment. Neglected in many texts of this nature, but given excellent treatment here, are such subjects as duplicating, maps, photography in teaching, screens and other accessories, and the proper use of resource units. The chapter on "The Complete Classroom" draws together a number of ideas which will be of interest to both the novice and the experienced teacher. What the author has to say about the general learning atmosphere is extremely thought provoking.

The instructor in search of a good audio-visual text for his classes or the in-service teacher seeking guidance in modern teaching techniques will welcome this book. It avoids the gadgeteering approach, yet is full of practical ideas. It is not overly philosophical, yet it helps the reader to build an understanding of useful methods.

WILLIAM H. HARTLEY

Paradoxes of Everyday Life: A Psychoanalyst's Interpretations by MILTON R. SAPIRSTEIN, M.D., and ALIS DE SOLA. New York: Random House, 1955. 240 pages, \$5.95.

Social scientific generalizations, like those of all contemporary science, are statements of probability. The exceptions to these generalizations indicate where further thought—greater theoretical adequacy—is needed. A recent collection of these exceptions, here called paradoxes, made by a practicing psychoanalyst does advance the state of psychological theory.

A brief statement concerning the contents of several chapters will indicate something of the range of material covered. Chapter 1, "Outcasts from Eden: The Paradox of the Marriage Manual," describes the wholly unanticipated consequence of poorer marital relations which may result when young persons take too literally the counsel of perfection and norms of performance advanced with perfectly good intentions by the manuals. Chapter 2, "Enigma within a Paradox: The Neurotic Child from the 'Happy' Home," and chapter 3, "The Screaming Mother: The Paradox of Emotional Control," give sharp delineation to many subtleties of the parent-child relationship not given standard treatment in the "books." Sapirstein indicates how parents, anxious for serenity, overcontrol their own emotions and fail to provide their children with experience in

dealing with another person's anger; make the children feel less adequate for their own anger; make more difficult the child's relating of self toward authority; and impede the child's eventual emancipation, so necessary for maturity, from the subtle tyranny of the "perfect" parent.

Chapter 5, "More Stately Mansions: The Paradox of Decorating a Home," explains why this undertaking, so avidly desired by many women, turns out to be a devastating experience, e.g., decorating is a projective task and women subconsciously realize that they are exposing their personalities, their souls, to public view; the responsibility is magnified by the expense of the operation; and the dilemma is heightened by the realization that mistakes must be lived with and publicly displayed for some time.

Dr. Sapirstein's astuteness in picking out and working through these and other paradoxes, and his approach, which mobilizes insights and concepts from all the social sciences rather than remaining confined within any limited theoretical orthodoxy, make this book a contribution to knowledge as well as a fascinating reading.

IRWIN D. RINDER

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Dr. Bing is director of the industrial arts department at East Carolina College, Greenville, North Carolina.

Dr. Brand is supervisor of secondary school mathematics at the State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota.

Dr. Hartley is director of audio-visual instruction at State Teachers College, Towson, Maryland, and former president of the Maryland Audio-Visual Association.

Dr. Lawhead is associate professor of education at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.

Dr. Nason is assistant professor of education at the University of Connecticut.

Mr. Rinder is on the sociology staff at Wisconsin State College, Milwaukee.

Dr. Silvan is assistant professor in the science department at the State Teachers College, New Haven.

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Maurice Evans Plays Shaw

When George Bernard Shaw's *Man and Superman* is presented on Hallmark "Hall of Fame" (November 25), viewers will be seeing part of a famous duet. The play embraces the dramatic segment known as *Don Juan in Hell*, which a Paul Gregory reading troupe brought successfully to Broadway a few seasons back (Columbia Records, 2-12" LP's OSL166). Because the *Don Juan* sequence is long, rather painfully philosophic, and only remotely related to the action of *Man and Superman*, it is seldom presented with the play although it comprises most of Act III.

Man and Superman reduces basically to a girls-boy farce. Jack Tanner, a descendant of Don Juan (thus the *Don Juan in Hell* insert), learns that the foster father of his friend Octavius made Tanner co-guardian of his daughter Ann just before he died. Octavius is in love with Ann and hopes to marry her. She, however, is merely toying with Octavius; actually she has her cap set for Jack. Jack, a great theorist regarding women's role in the scheme of things, realizes that Ann is trapping some man, but he is unable to reduce his theory to actuality and see that he is the prey. Consequently, he believes Octavius is her quarry. When his chauffeur-mechanic, Henry Straker, reveals to Tanner that he is the pursued, Tanner flees the country. Ann follows, politely jilts Octavius, and moves in on Jack, who, realizing the inevitability of the situation, succumbs to her guile.

If the teacher regards this farcical meringue as being too airy for a class lesson and finds the philosophic crust too tough for high-school students to chew, is there still enough filling left in between for worth-while study? I think so, although other Shaw plays are more satisfactory for study in high school. To continue the metaphor, education consists not only in preparing the student's palate, in convincing him that pie is good for him, but also in finding those pies and parts of pies which will have some special appeal for him. For even if we are able to provide the pies but neglect to develop a group of pie eaters, the pies remain uneaten. Similarly, if we carefully nurture a bevy of young pie eaters and there is no pie to be eaten, their appetites will turn elsewhere. Judging from the last TV season, it is the pie makers who have

the surplus commodity. The networks produced a number of first-class, proven plays. One of these, *The Devil's Disciple*, which was splendidly done by Maurice Evans on the Hallmark "Hall of Fame," had virtually the lowest rating of any spectacular (a loose term which meant at one time a ninety-minute show) presented last season. If we, as teachers, cannot produce more pie eaters and help raise the standards of taste in television viewing, we must expect a resurgence of the roller derby and Nature Boy Buddy Rogers. Network executives will no longer try to enlighten the audience if their efforts at enlightenment get no exposure.

There are many starting points for initiating classroom discussion on *Man and Superman* preparatory to asking the students to watch the play on television. One would be through Ann Whitefield, whom Shaw considered a kind of Everywoman. A student could report on the old morality play, *Everyman*, and others could posit qualities that they would expect of an Everywoman if they were of a rather cynical bent. Another approach would be through Don Juan. Has anyone in the class ever heard of a Don Juan who rejected women? And yet this is the Shavian twist, for John Tanner, Juan's descendant, does just that. Shaw considers him a Don Juan in the sense that he defies God or fate. A valuable introductory lesson could also be made by listing on the board the names of the important characters and assigning students to read the section of the play (Penguin Books, 3300 Clipper Mill, Baltimore, 50¢) in which the character is introduced. They will then bring in a sentence or two of Shaw's own commentary on the character so that the class will glean some idea of what kind of person the character is supposed to be. Shaw is usually quite vivid in introducing a character (e.g., he refers to John Tanner, the central character, as "a megalomaniac who would be lost without a sense of humor").

Once beyond the introductory stage, what is the "filling" in the play which students should learn of? Shaw's oft-dealt-with thesis that the world belongs to the one who defies convention is present in *Man and Superman*. The most interesting male characters are those who are not bound by the dictates of appropriateness. And Ann Whitefield succeeds in capturing Jack, once she outwardly de-

fies the conventions that she has inwardly flouted all along. Conventionality is a significant problem with teen-agers, who want to belong and who want to be different as well. Sometimes they solve their problem by becoming a clique, a group which defies the conventions of society but whose members act alike. Are the members of motorcycle clubs or groups of boys who use Hollywood mufflers really individualists?

According to Shaw's idea, Everywoman's urge to be a mother was thwarted by the artist, since the latter had urges and compulsions that transcended home and family, and which obliged him to produce works of art. This block in turn stopped the Life Force which eventually was to evolve a Superman from the race of men (this Nietzschean Superman would be to man as man is to the apes). Jack Tanner recognizes early that Ann cannot marry the artist Octavius because there would be a block to the Life Force (although we see little of the artist in Octavius). Our modern society has produced familial discord through other channels as well as the artistic. High-powered executives are pictured in current literature and motion pictures as men who have married their work to get to the top, and in so doing have virtually lost sight of their families. A panel discussion (boys v. girls, perhaps) on the amount of time a family man should spend on his job will make teen-agers aware that such a problem exists before they must confront it for themselves. Career women frequently forsake marriage for their jobs; does the career man have the same obligation?

There is another point in the play the student should be made to recognize for its structural value. Ann and Violet both seek marriage and security, but they achieve these goals in inverse order. Ann gets security when her father dies, but must defy convention to gain a husband. Violet gets a husband early, but also must defy convention to get the elder Hector Malone to support them richly.

Man and Superman is much too verbose to be one of Shaw's best plays. But the combination of Shaw, who is always provocative if not agreeable, and Maurice Evans, one of the foremost interpreters of Shaw in our day, bears watching.

STUDY QUESTIONS

- (1) How is the viewer's interest aroused in Jack Tanner?
- (2) Why, exactly, does Jack object to being named Ann's guardian?
- (3) What is the origin of "Ricky-ticky-tavy," which Ann uses as a nickname for Octavius?
- (4) What caused the rift between Ann and Jack during their school days?
- (5) What does Henry Straker represent?

(6) Shaw gives as a stage direction for one of Octavius' speeches, "Dithyrambically." What does it mean?

(7) How does Ann "use" her father's death?

(8) In what way does Jack bring about his own downfall?

(9) What makes the elder Hector Malone change his mind about Violet?

(10) Why does Ann's mother urge Jack to marry Ann?

(11) How is it revealed that Ann planned on catching Jack for some time?

(12) Shaw actually wrote a revolutionist's pamphlet "by Jack Tanner." What advantages would this have over signing his own name to it?

(13) What characters in the play seem rather like caricatures?

(14) Who is the real hero, Ann Whitefield or Jack Tanner? Explain.

(15) Do you think Shaw plays, depending as they do on sharp-witted dialogue, might be more suited for radio than for either television or the legitimate stage? Discuss.

H.B.M.

From the Critics' Notebook

HOW TO EVALUATE THE MASS MEDIA. Edgar Dale shows, in the following excerpt from his May '56 *News Letter*, as well as in all of his other work, that there is no intrinsic incompatibility between "education" as a professional subject and the liberal arts. The remarkable thing about this pioneer in the criticism of mass communication is that he is at home with both the latest educational research and the great thinkers of past and present. His achievement is the best proof we have that a sound and fertile criticism of mass communication must rely on both the practical know-how of pedagogy and the illuminating perspective of the humane tradition. Without the latter, there is usually sterile gimmickry; without the former, there more often than not is mere Olympian snobbery. For 25 cents you can put yourself on the mailing list for Edgar Dale's monthly *News Letter*, "bringing information to the teacher about the radio, the press, and the motion picture." Write the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

"How do you evaluate the mass media?" he asks. "Basic standards for evaluating films, books, and television are like those used in evaluating other aspects of life. . . .

"When we evaluate any mass medium we are talking about its treatment of man. How does Edward R. Murrow conceive of man in his broadcasts, as contrasted with some of the movies or live dramas seen on television? The writer Mickey

Spillane sees man as basically brutal, so superior to other men that he can take the law in his own hands and dispense 'justice' by killing or maiming.

"We ask then: 'What view of man is the author trying to portray? Is he trying to say that men are in the grip of forces outside their control, demonic or god-like? Or are men in charge of their own lives, able to exercise option and disciplined choice? What is the author saying about the desirable role of a person in conforming, not conforming, or transforming? . . .'"

"Another way to evaluate the mass media is to note the standard of success which they set up. Usually in popular books and films a man wins the girl, or the vice-presidency, or the leading role in a play. On the legitimate stage the hero both wins and loses. This does not mean that a happy ending is a bad thing or a good thing. The issue is: Is it reasonable? We have occasional films, books, and television programs which question our typical concept of success, for example, 'Patterns,' 'Marty,' 'Executive Suite.' The life of the station-wagon set in Stamford, Winnetka, or Beverly Hills apparently is not all it is cracked up to be. . . ."

"Some producers of the mass media have the curious belief that if no proof of harm can be offered, the content under discussion is suitable. Harm, however, has varied disguises. A culture can be drowned in a sea of triviality. A society can prolong into adulthood the film and TV classification of men as either discernibly 'good' or 'bad.' . . ."

THE TEN BIGGEST GRIPEs ABOUT TELEVISION:

Robert Shaw, whose article from *Variety* is excerpted below, writes TV plays and lectures widely throughout the United States on TV's effects on our way of life. Thus he has an enviable perspective to bring to the problem of better taste on TV. His article is typical of material on the entertainment arts that appears weekly in *Variety*, the trade magazine of show business. Teachers would do well to have a copy of *Variety* in the faculty library. Its subscription price, \$10, is stiff, but it contains material of both a descriptive and self-critical nature that simply does not exist elsewhere. Mature students will like its vigorous, disheveled prose and will profit by its excellent reviews of movies, TV, radio, and popular music. (Subscription information: 154 W. 46th St., New York 36, N.Y.)

"In the last six weeks, I've been talking about television," writes Mr. Shaw. "Out on the lecture circuit, I've talked to more than 15,000 tv viewers in 27 states, collected into audiences ranging from a convention of engineers in Boston to the be-hatted members of the Peoria Women's Club. I've talked, and I've listened to what the viewers had to say. Right across the country, there's a startling

unanimity of comment, and because hearing it helped me, I want to pass it on. . . ."

"Nearly all of them, in all 6,500 miles of the chicken a la king circuit, are tv viewers. Nearly all of them have something to say.

"The most immediate reaction to be gained is the salutary fact that the day of the tv 'hold-out' is over. Five years ago, when I began these annual lecture treks, at least a dozen in any audience approached me after a lecture and with a peculiar pride, announced that they never watch tv. This seemed to me an attempt to assert intellectual superiority, born of a conviction that to watch tv was a confession of ignorance. This isn't true anymore. I met no one who doesn't watch tv some of the time, and even the keenest have found something to their liking on their channels.

"Teachers, too, are 'with it.' Perhaps because like too many of my colleagues I don't get out of New York often enough, I was surprised as well as encouraged by the use of tv in the classroom. Said Sister Marie Chantal, of St. Mary Academy in Monroe, Michigan, 'Sadler's Wells Co. in "The Sleeping Beauty" provided me with meaty laboratory work for my 12th grade English classes. I told them to report their own opinions, and those reports included a brief general description of the program, the name of the author and producer, general aims of the program and degree of achievement."

"It would appear that in our classrooms as well as in the living room, a generation of discriminatory viewers is being born.

"When you talk about tv, you hear complaints, and I'd be remiss if I didn't report them. In analysis, they can be condensed to 10, and they represent those I heard most often. Because they were almost identical, coast to coast, and often phrased in almost the same language, I think they're important.

"(1) Adequate reception New Yorkers seem to take for granted, and we shouldn't. Springfield, for example, is the capital of Illinois and a big city. Yet at dinner before my lecture to the B'nai B'rith Open Forum, I heard my hostess say, "'Studio One" didn't come in very good last night. Too much snow.' Across the table, a guest replied that on his set 'Studio One' came in fine, but 'Medic' didn't come in at all.

"(2) At home in Fairfield, I'm lulled into the belief that most viewers across the country have the same wide selection of tv fare that I have. They haven't. Remarks like 'I wish we could get Ed Murrow' are common.

"(3) Networks are blamed for evils and ills over which they have no control. A woman rises in the lecture hall to castigate 'the networks' for long

commercials. She's talking about a local used-car dealer whose nightly spiels stretch a feature picture to two and a half hours. In Indianapolis, a man at lunch complains of two continuous hours of cowboy movies during the late afternoon. It's hard to convince him that these do not originate with 'those networks.'

"(4) In the realm of tv drama, complaints about the endings of shows came as no surprise. A woman in Dallas summed it up when she commented, 'We don't watch plays on tv any more. We never know how they come out.'

"(5) Again in the realm of drama, a lawyer in Buffalo voiced a complaint I heard often when he told me, 'I've got enough trouble at the office all day, without watching somebody else's troubles all night.' In Houston, a woman asked me, 'Why do you tv writers always write about people who are miserable?'

"(6) The audio level of commercials came in for considerable comment. A man in Roanoke complained that he sets his volume for comfortable listening, but when the commercial comes on, it blasts him out of his davenport. He left little doubt that he resents it.

"(7) Musical backgrounds, too, were complained about. I was told repeatedly that on dramatic shows the music in the background is so loud the actors can't be heard. About variety shows I was assured that the orchestra often drowns out the singer.

"(8) Because some quiz and panel shows seem so obviously fixed to the viewer, he tends to condemn them all. Without question, I believe there's a startling lack of faith in many of these programs. 'Oh, they're all fixed before they go on the air' is a comment I heard often.

"(9) Viewers are curious about color tv, and in some areas, they're excited about it. But I also heard considerable resentment of the quality of color shows received in black and white. 'They're fuzzy' is a common reaction.

"(10) One complaint hasn't changed in five years, and that's the vehement reaction against canned studio laughter. In every city I visited they resent it, and bitterly.

"While I heard complaints, I heard something else, too. I heard viewers everywhere praising tv, and being grateful for it. In six weeks of travel, I learned something I've only wondered about at home in Connecticut. And that's the fact that the tv set is a vital part of the American home. As a woman in Milwaukee told me, 'It's made our living room important again. The whole family stays home nights, and we watch it together. That's what a home is for.'

"Talking to the viewers, the writer begins to feel privileged. He sees a dignity in their homes, and he

begins to understand the privilege he's granted when he enters them through his writing. This dignity explains, I think, why I heard a show like 'Wide Wide World' praised, why I heard applause when I remarked that Don McNeill is 'wholesome,' why I heard off-color comedians wholeheartedly condemned. The writer returns from a lecture tour determined to do better to merit his privilege, to live up to the viewer's expectations. It's a good feeling. I recommend the trip."

MOVIE CRITICS (Warner Twyford, amusement editor of the Norfolk *Virginia-Pilot*, cited in *Variety* for July 4, 1956): "Some of the movies' most accomplished critics are unfaithful to their tasks. Their attitude is disdainful, their talents directed toward literary brilliance and demonstrating their cleverness and wit at the expense of the medium. . . . I like the movies. The people who criticize them ought to like the movies basically too. The film critic may dislike a large majority of the films he sees; that is not important. What is important is that he has to believe in the movies as an art potential. Otherwise, his criticism has no basis in justice and consequently no integrity."

Reviews of Related Literature

Enjoying Modern Art by SARAH NEWMAYER. New York: Reinhold Publishing Corp., 1955. \$4.95.

The Eye of Man: Form and Content in Western Painting by SELDEN RODMAN. New York: Devin-Adair Co., 1955. \$10.00.

7 *Arts*, No. 3 edited by FERNANDO PUMA. Indian Hills, Colorado: Falcon's Wing Press, 1955. Cloth, \$2.95; paper, 95 cents.

What with the sniffs of the artists who regard any doubt or consternation on the part of the layman as dense stupidity and the snorts of the laymen who know full well what they like after a single museum visit, the very real values of modern art can easily be lost to great sectors of today's potential audience. There is great need for books that interpret the labyrinths of modern art to the interested. Further, as mass reproduction does for the painting and sculpture what the printing press has long done for the poem and novel, teachers will want to train themselves "in service" to give their students elementary introductions to the plastic arts. Each of the books under review contributes something to those very desirable goals.

Sarah Newmeyer's book is most useful in supplying background information on the many artistic ideologies, from classicism to the latest variant of what she bitterly terms the "drip-and-dribble" school. Her description of the French Academy's bureaucratic control over painting, for example,

makes it clear why the term "academic" is a swear word in painterly circles. Biographical information on the artists smashes two popular misconceptions: there is too great a variety of temperament and behavior to give credence to the distraught-genius image of the artist; and when Bohemianism did exist, it frequently was a kind of spiritual agony, with little in common with the stereotype of "gay times" in Greenwich Village. Publishing economics apparently dictated the placing of the eighty black-and-white reproductions in one signature; it is very inconvenient. What is more serious, there seems to be too little explication of specific paintings, which beginners most need to "enjoy modern art."

Selden Rodman's book avoids these two weaknesses: his explanations of specific paintings appear under the pictures themselves and are usually amplified in the texts adjacent to the one hundred reproductions. His is a deeply felt book; this is significant because his argument is that great painting results when artists feel deeply about other human beings and use formal techniques to express those feelings. His favorites are those who have found ways of combining form and content in their paintings: Gruenewald, El Greco, Rembrandt, Goya, Daumier, Van Gogh, Rouault, Orozco, Picasso of the "Guernica," and contemporary American painters like Hyman Bloom, Jack Levine, and Ben Shahn. Rodman has written a book that is more philosophical and demanding than Newmeyer's; it is also more rewarding. Rodman's case against the abstractionists is stronger than hers; the latter's argument at times falls to the level of a grudge.

Puma's volume reminds us of the community of all the arts. There are forty-eight reproductions and eighteen articles in it: Rouault on the rights of the painter; Farrell on the novel; Theodore Roszak on modern sculpture; Sigfried Giedion on architecture; Dorothy Parker on Hollywood and the writer; Dr. Hutchins on education; and several others. The late editor's moving plea for community support of the creative artist, his comparison of our cultural laissez-faire with promising precedents of support in Europe is one of the high points of the collection. The idea of this series—to give the creative person a chance to talk directly to the patrons of the seven arts of dance, music, theater, painting, sculpture, literature, and architecture—is fundamentally very important. The first two volumes in this series are 50-cent PermaBooks. In No. 2, I particularly liked Sean O'Casey's "The Arts among the Multitude"; in No. 1, Gian-Carlo Menotti's "A Plea for the Creative Artist." The latter was very useful in the modern unit of a twelfth-grade survey of literature.

Teachers who are curious enough to learn about the plastic arts from books like these will be doubly

repaid. First, their own lives will be enlivened through their newly opened eyes. Secondly, they will find the concept of "form" in the visual arts an excellent metaphor for teaching literature more effectively. The "museum without walls," made possible by photographic reproduction of art, ought to be given a big boost in the classroom; English teachers working with the art department can do this new job best.

P.D.H.

Best Television Plays edited by GORE VIDAL, New York: Ballantine Books, Inc., 1956, 35 cents.

Gore Vidal's edition of *Best Television Plays* affords the viewer a chance to study at length this ephemeral art form. One might quibble with the designation "best plays," since three of the eight are only a tear and a snuffle away from being soap operas, but the anthology certainly does offer the most successful authors of television drama. Reginald Rose, Horton Foote, Robert Alan Aurthur, Tad Mosel, J. P. Miller, Paddy Chayefsky, Gore Vidal, and Rod Serling are names that many viewers should recognize.

Five of the plays are first rate. Reginald Rose's *Thunder on Sycamore Street* is a powerful study of social intolerance at the neighborhood level, done in an offbeat dramatic framework—the three acts take place during the same period of time. *The Mother*, by Paddy Chayefsky, depicts a problem that is extremely significant in our society: what to do with the aged who are still useful workers but not so quick and alert as younger people. It is told with the realistic characterizations and keen ear for authentic dialogue that typify Chayefsky's writings. In *Man on the Mountaintop*, Robert Alan Aurthur writes of the intellectual recluse driven into an ivory tower by the vulgarities of society—in this case, represented by his father. *Visit to a Small Planet*, Gore Vidal's contribution to the book, is not so effective on paper as it was in the hands of the versatile Cyril Ritchard on the TV screen, but it is still a fine example of the Mark Twain heritage in American letters, a serious theme cloaked in whimsicality. Rod Serling's *The Strike* is a taut war drama dealing with the combat officer's inevitable decision to sacrifice a few men to save many. It is an excellent study of a man and his conscience, one which shows the other side of the flamboyant red, white, and blue coin that Hollywood so frequently mints. These five plays provide provocative thematic material for classroom discussion and good starting points for mature reports on problems which high-school students may eventually face. They offer some good tough rope for pulling the teen-ager toward the goal of maturity, a goal that not all adults reach.

This writer finds that plays or books in which all of the characters are inherently weak lean toward bathos, and consequently it is difficult to shed any tears for poor Kate in Tad Mosel's *My Lost Saints*. Her mother's taking advantage of her is a darned shame or too bad but hardly tragic. The reader gets the embarrassed feeling that he is watching an intimate family tiff that should not be exposed to public inspection. Similarly, J. P. Miller's *The Rabbit Trap* has a weak, rather unsympathetic central character. When he shows spunk enough to quit his job after eight years of being stepped on, we cannot feel that he has changed, that he will be a dynamo from now on. Because his own weakness has been the ultimate cause of his losing the job, one concludes that he is responsible for any misfortune which might befall him. The play tries to approach the problem of family v. job in making demands on a man's time, but the combination of the dull character and a farfetched situation is too much for the play. Horton Foote's *A Young Lady of Property* also has too much sentimentality to be convincing, but it is a notch above the other two.

The book's main function for the teacher is in providing a close look at a new dramatic genre. These tight little three-act plays are unique forms. Like stage drama, they were presented live, a factor which enables the playgoer or viewer to enjoy the spontaneity of an actual performance. Unlike legitimate drama, they are tied up with selling a sponsor's product. Like movies, they provide only the image of the actor on a screen. Unlike the movies, they give the actor no opportunity for a retake on a fluffed line. Movies and legitimate dramas sometimes run for years, but the television play presented twice is a rarity.

Teachers who take the time before starting a unit on TV drama to look into the two small books by William I. Kaufman, *How to Write for Television* and *How to Direct for Television* (Hastings House, \$2.50 each) will better appreciate the problems of the TV dramatist.

H.B.M.

SCREENINGS

Some People's Actions Speak Louder Than Words

Gene Kelly's feature-length film, *Invitation to the Dance*, is an unusual tour de force—not one word is uttered throughout it. Here is opportunity to test the old adage: actions speak louder than words.

The film is at once a treat for those familiar with the dance as an art form and an interesting introduction for those unfamiliar with it. For by forcing the viewer to regard dancer's movement and pantomime alone, the film is indeed an invitation to appreciate the dance as a form of human expression. Freedom from dialogue is freedom to concentrate on patterned, expressive movements. Its appeal to both sophisticated and uninitiated makes this film a good point of departure for class discussion of one of the oldest art forms.

In the first segment, "Circus," Gene Kelly plays the Clown who harbors a secret passion for the Loved, Claire Sombert. She is fond of the Clown, but is enamored of the tightrope performer, the Lover, played by Igor Youskevitch. Throughout the circus day, we see the Clown consumed by his love for the beautiful dancer. In the evening, in the deserted square where the traveling circus entertains, the Clown rehearses his grief. He witnesses a bewitching courtship dance between the Lover and the Loved. When the lovers depart, the Clown places the girl's brilliant red shawl on a chair and pretends to woo her. The girl returns and is moved by the Clown's grief and tenderly kisses him; the Lover then sees the Clown in her arms; he leaves in anger and the girl is heartbroken. The Clown makes a desperate attempt to change the girl's pity to love by climbing on the tightrope in a vain attempt to match his antagonist's skill. He falls, fatally hurt, on her red cloak. He begs the lovers to be reunited and dies.

I have given the story line in all its apparently pat detail for a purpose. It seems like the sheerest bathos, a soap opera with legs. The point is that with dialogue this would be unbearably trite and embarrassingly romantic. In choreographic form, however, the exaggerated expressiveness of the dancing neatly balances the exaggerated emotions of the story. As in the expressionist painting of a Ben Shahn or the dissonant music of a Stravinsky, simple, powerful, basic emotions break through the clichés of everyday expression. Artful distortion and exaggeration make us see and feel deeply again.

Our students are so conditioned by the "realism" of *Dragnet* or the many-setted splendor of a TV sinking of the *Titanic* that they tend to think of art as an extension of life rather than as a transformation and interpretation of it. The photojournalism of *Life* and *Look* is the "real thing," and when well done it is art to them. Getting across the idea that art gives a new "form" (or transforms) old, familiar materials to produce a heightened awareness of life is the teacher's first task. And he can perhaps best show how art is necessarily "selective" by beginning with obvious exag-

generations like those in the "Circus" sequence from *Invitation to the Dance*.

The second sequence, "Ring Around the Rosy," traces a beautiful bracelet, a husband's anniversary gift to an unfaithful wife, through a series of romantic episodes until it is finally retrieved by the husband and returned to his wife to renew their love. While the mood of the first sequence was tender and poignant, the mood of this dance is sophisticated and cynical. There are marvelous satires of a cocktail party and of the kind of crooner who makes girls swoon. The nonnaturalistic elements in these satires (faster-than-humanly-possible movements produced by slowing the film during the party sequences and the surrealistic trombone that provides a voice for the crooner) are further examples the teacher can use to indicate how art can often give a better impression of life by caricaturing and distorting it than by unimaginatively presenting documentary facts and appearances.

In the third and final sequence, "Sinbad the Sailor," Gene Kelly is a gob on shore leave in the Middle East, who gains possession of an Aladdin's lamp and goes on a cartoonish excursion to the land of Arabian nights. It is another example of the visual experimentation undertaken by artists in search of new forms of expression. This third sequence seemed the weakest to us since it wasn't tied together thematically; it was an interesting tour de force but not so moving as the first two were.

In continuing your discussion of how art reflects life, however, you could make the point that art becomes a new part of life, available for later artists to comment on, just as "real life" always is available. Thus, in this third sequence, Gene Kelly has taken a work of art, *The Arabian Nights* tales, and made a variation. Art, then, is not properly opposed to life but represents man's powers to recreate, transform, and revivify life by providing new points of view toward it. The arts are important because they provide us ways of looking at life, ways of looking at ourselves, that is. To make this point clearly to your students, assign them individual projects in the dance. There are at least four ways of approaching any art form: historical, sociological, formal, and creative. To make those categories specific, here are typical questions in each area.

(1) *Historical*: Was dancing always for mere entertainment? In early cultures find examples of utilitarian dancing, i.e., dancing closely connected with survival in the community. When did ballroom dancing start? Trace the evolution of a dance form like the waltz. Have there been significant changes in dancing in the United States in the last

fifty years? Ask your grandmother and mother for data.

(2) *Sociological*: What are the causes of the rock-and-roll craze? Is personal (ballroom) or social dancing (square dancing) more popular in your community? Why? Trace the career of a famous contemporary dancer like Agnes deMille or Margot Fonteyn. What things in their society encouraged and discouraged them? Is it easier to become a good school teacher or a good dancer in America? Why? Do institutions like the New York City Center Ballet Company have financial problems? Why? What is TV doing for the dancer? Write profiles on the John Butler or the June Taylor Dancers.

(3) *Formal*: Demonstrate the "vocabulary" of ballet (its basic steps and stances) to your class. Show the exercises that ballet dancers use to improve their form. Explain a new popular dance step to your class. If color, line, shape, light, and texture are basic ingredients of a painting, what are the basic ingredients of dance?

(4) *Creative*: Take a recording like Aaron Copland's *Billy the Kid*, listen to it, then read the story, and try to show how the music and story line could be expressed in choreographic terms. This would be most effective when the student can then see how the ballet is choreographed professionally. Take a short story or a poem in your literature anthology and choose music and dance patterns to express it visually.

The Gene Kelly film shows that some people's actions speak louder than words. You might ask your students why M.G.M. has kept this film, completed, in its vaults for so long. Is M.G.M. underestimating the American public's interest in good art? Some 30,000,000 people watched Sadler's Wells's *The Sleeping Beauty* on TV in the fall of 1955; there seems to be a growing audience for artistic dance, and the teacher of the humanities in the high school will find in this film an outstanding introduction to a powerful form of human expression as well as an excellent way to pin down for the student's benefit several important esthetic concepts. The teaching of literature can be lifted to much higher levels by occasional departures from the highway of print into the pastoral countryside of the visual arts. Any point about the nature of art made in a discussion of nonliterary forms can be applied with increasing force to literature. The English teacher can make printed literature a student's passport to the entire community of the arts merely by taking a few well-chosen sorties off the curricular path each year. *Invitation to the Dance* might be one of those offbeat assignments for your classes.

P.D.H.

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